The Outlook

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What is Hostility to Government?

Alexander Scott, a Socialist editor, who was convicted of inciting hostility and opposition to any and all government because he criticised and denounced the police of Paterson, New Jersey, as brutal strikers and violators of the Constitution, has appealed his case. As several daily newspapers have pointed out, Mr. Scott has said nothing more severe of the police of Paterson than New York City editors—very far from being Socialistic in conviction—have said about the New York City police. Of course there is this difference, that the law under which Mr. Scott was convicted in New Jersey does not apply in New York State. It would be a matter of considerable interest to editors generally if the courts should uphold, as in accord with the Constitution and the fundamental rights of a free people, a law which would put any editor in jail because he printed the vigorous condemnation of lawless acts on the part of Government officials and employees. If Mr. Scott had been convicted of making false accusations, or of urging violent physical resistance to the police, or of attempting or inciting others to attempt an assault upon any officer of the law, it would have been another matter. No evidence was introduced to sustain any such charge. It was, so far as we can see, solely because he criticised the police and accused them of lawlessness that he was indicted, tried, and convicted. Mr. Scott's economic and social beliefs have nothing to do with the case. The fact that he wrote his editorial in the interest of strikers who have been dominated by an organization which many people regard as anarchistic has also nothing to do with the case. We hope that Mr. Scott will carry his case to the Supreme Court of the United States if it is necessary to do so in order to determine definitely and indisputably whether the law may deny any man, without regard to the question of the truth of his allegations, the right freely and sharply to criticise the acts of Governmental employees and officials.

The Exoneration of William M. Wood

While the din of industrial war at Paterson has not yet subsided, there is still sounding an echo of the industrial war at Lawrence, Massachusetts. This has been the trial of William M. Wood, President of the American Woolen Company; Fred. E. Atteaux, a dealer in chemicals; and Dennis J. Collins, a dog fancier, who were charged with conspiring to place dynamite where it would bring suspicion upon the Lawrence strikers. Of this charge Mr. Wood has been acquitted and Mr. Collins has been convicted. With regard to Mr. Atteaux the jury disagreed. That dynamite was "planted" there is no doubt. A man named Pitman, according to reliable evidence, secured dynamite and gave it to a man named Breen. Breen and Collins went to Lawrence with the dynamite in packages and left these packages at various places. Breen said that he was paid by Atteaux, and it is known, in fact admitted, that Atteaux had received money from the American Woolen Company, at the direction of President Wood, for services in advancing the Company's interest during the strike. This appears to be the only connection of Mr. Wood with this plan of "planting" dynamite. The jury could not agree that Atteaux was culpable, but they all agreed that Mr. Wood was not involved in this conspiracy. Why Pitman, Collins, and Breen did what evidence showed they did could not be wholly brought out, because, after his first interview with the District Attorney, Pitman committed suicide; and what Breen, who has been convicted and fined for his participation in this act, says about the matter is vitiated by the fact that he seems to be unworthy of confidence. Two things are perfectly plain, however: First, in this strike there was an

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attempt to discredit the strikers by making it appear that they and their sympathizers were harboring dynamite; second, it was made clear that large sums of money were paid by the mill-owners to Atteaux without an accounting to show for what definite purposes that money would be spent. For those men who participated in this "planting" of dynamite there can be only the roundest condemnation. In whatever interest they distributed this dynamite, they were guilty of a particularly contemptible form of wrong-doing. The lesson that has been administered to them is one which we believe a very small minority of Americans need to learn. There is, however, another aspect of this case that has much wider application. It is a very common and a very blundering policy on the part of too many business men who face a difficult situation to hand money over to somebody who is believed to know how to "fix things" and "no questions asked." This is a method that, in past times at least, has prevailed in politics. Men who themselves would never think of bribing another man seem to be willing to hand over money to subordinates without any expectation that an accounting of that money will be rendered, and with reason for believing that the expenditure of that money will be, in part at least, illegitimate. This practice is not the same as conspiracy to commit a wrong. We are, therefore, heartily glad that the jury, seeing this distinction, unanimously and unmistakably acquitted Mr. Wood. We believe that those who are responsible for the conduct of business affairs will heed the lesson that this trial spreads before them. Indeed, we are not sure but that it would be a real protection, not merely to legitimate business, but to all high business officials, if the law were to make it an offense for any officer of a corporation to authorize the payment of any considerable amount of money without requiring a definite statement as to the purposes and objects for which the money was expended.

The I. W. W. Pageant

The leaders of the Industrial Workers of the World know the value of advertising and realize the power of public sympathy, even though the advertising which they have been accorded has hardly been of a desirable kind and the sympathy which they have received has been chiefly expressed by resentment at the stupidity of their opponents. For example, the sending of the children from Lawrence was a simple, lawful means to this end—a means made doubly effective by the manner in which the problem was handled by the police. In its attack upon the structure of modern society the I. W. W. (as it is commonly called) has been signally adept in the employment of the weapons of society itself. An I. W. W. demonstration which might in some respects have served as a presentation of any great industrial grievance was recently staged in Madison Square Garden. A Pageant of the Paterson Strike enacted by over a thousand workmen and women drew to that great hall an audience of over twelve thousand men and women. We say in some respects, because the drama of this Pageant was not a protest against intolerably low wages so much as a protest against the wage system itself. The background of the stage, which covered one whole side of the Garden, showed a panoramic view of the Paterson mills. A huge red curtain divided the stage from the audience. The six scenes of the Pageant were given with a directness, an intensity, and a power seldom seen on the professional stage. Three of the episodes presented are thus graphically described in the programme:

EPISODE ONE

1. The Mills Alive—The Workers Dead
2. The Workers Begin to Think

Six o'clock on a February morning. The mill windows all aglow. The mill whistle sounds the signal to begin work. Men and women, old and young, come to work in the bitter cold of the dawn. The sound of looms. The beginning of the great silk strike. The striking workers sing the "Marseillaise," the entire audience being invited to join in the song of revolt.

EPISODE TWO

The Mills Dead—The Workers Alive

Mass picketing. Every worker alert. The police interfere with peaceful picketing and treat the strikers with great brutality. The workers are provoked to anger. Fights between police and strikers ensue. Many strikers are clubbed and arrested. Shots are fired by detectives hired by the manufacturers, and Valentino Modestino, who was not a striker or a silk mill worker, is hit by a bullet and killed as he stands on the porch of his house with one of his children in his arms.

EPISODE THREE

The Funeral of Modestino

The coffin containing the body of Modestino is followed by the strikers in funeral procession to the strains of the "Dead March." The strikers passing drop red carnations and ribbons upon the coffin until it is buried beneath the crimson symbol of the workers' blood.

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What the Pageant Meant to the Actors

It would have been impossible to doubt the absolute naked sincerity of the actors in this great industrial drama. An unjust wage system has culminated in a belief that all wage systems are unjust. In the introduction to the episodes outlined above the purpose of this Pageant is thus described:

> The pageant represents a battle between the working class and the capitalist class conducted by the Industrial Workers of the World (I. W. W.), making use of the General Strike as the chief weapon. It is a conflict between two forces—the force of labor and the force of capital.
>
> While the workers are clubbed and shot by detectives and policemen, the mills remain dead. While the workers are sent to jail by hundreds, the mills remain dead. While organizers are persecuted, the strike continues, and still the mills are dead. While the pulpit thunders denunciation and the press screams lies, the mills remain dead. No violence can make the mills alive—no legal process can resurrect them from the dead. Bayonets and clubs, injunctions and court orders, are equally futile.
>
> Only the return of the workers to the mills can give the dead things life.

Disgust with governmental anarchy, belief in a free press, free speech, and a just return for all wealth-creating labor—mental as well as manual—should blind no one to the ultimate purpose of the I. W. W. In a poem ("Bill Haywood," by Tom Flynn) distributed at the Pageant are to be found these significant lines:

"The Revolution means what it means,
Point-blank and undismayed,
That the worker will take with the hand of the strong
And make no masquerade.

That means we shall pull the system down,
And trample it in its fall,
That means just this—and nothing but this—
Or else—means nothing at all.

We shall not look for a purchased law
Sold by a boughten court,
But will play the game till the loser at last
Shall pay for the winner's sport."

The Sugar Lobby

The Senate Committee's investigation of the prevalence of lobbying was chiefly occupied last week with inquiry into the methods of the opponents of free sugar, although a diversion was attempted by Senator Townsend, a Michigan Republican, who, having defined a lobbyist as a person whose business it is to promote or prevent legislation, held up President Wilson as the foremost representative of what the President has denounced as lobbying. Senator Townsend asserted that the influence of the President had held several Democratic Senators in line for the tariff bill although it did not "coincide with their known and publicly expressed convictions." This counter-attack, it should be added, seems to have made no forceful impression either on the Committee or on the country. The evidence as to the steps taken by the sugar-growing interests to fight free sugar as provided for three years hence in the tariff bill showed that money and effort had been spent with great freedom, but did not include any disclosures of dishonest method. Ex-Governor Carter, of Hawaii, told of the expenditure of $100,000 in agitation and the circulation of literature, and added that he thought an expenditure of $800,000 would be little enough, for he believed that the bill would destroy an industry having $82,000,000 of capital. Mr. Irwin, another lobbyist, or at least paid representative, of the sugar interests, declared that he had received assurance at the Baltimore Convention that the Democratic tariff policy would not include free sugar, and that Mr. Underwood himself had then told him that he was not in favor of free sugar. One development of the week was the statement that more than a million documents had been sent out by the opponents of free sugar under the franks of Congress, and that the speeches of Congressmen thus used were in part rewritten and "improved" at the expense of the sugar interests before they were sent out as public documents from the Government Printing Office. The use of Congressional franks for distributing what is substantially party or special literature is unhappily no new offense. It is apparently lawful, but it is certainly wrong.

A Non-Partisan Campaign for Direct Primaries

New York State may be slow in taking up reforms that other States have long ago adopted (though this is not always true); but when it does take up a reform it is likely to take it up in a way that attracts the attention of the country. Even those States that have become so used to direct primaries that they regard them as immemorially old must regard with some interest the campaign which is being conducted on behalf of direct primaries by New York's picturesque Governor. That this campaign has been non-partisan in char-

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acter is proved by the fact that it is being fought by members of all three of the principal parties. New evidence of this appeared last week when Mr. Roosevelt stood side by side with Governor Sulzer as a speaker in the cause. Only a few years ago the machine leaders in the Republican and Democratic parties denounced the direct primary, root and branch. The advance in public opinion since then is shown by the fact that these machine leaders and their newspaper organs are confining their attention solely to the attempt to preserve from the wreck of the boss system a single institution—the State Convention. Under a really thoroughgoing direct primary system a State Convention, in the ordinary sense of that term, is impossible. The direct primary means, by its very term, a primary in which the voters nominate their candidates directly. A State Convention, on the other hand, is a device by which candidates are nominated by delegates, that is, by people to whom power has been delegated. If a party is pledged to a direct primary system without qualification, the party leaders who attempt to preserve the State Convention are not acting in accord with the party pledge. Governor Sulzer is telling the voters of his party that their representatives who have voted against the Sulzer Primary Bill simply because it did not preserve the State Convention are not helping to keep the party pledge which promised a State-wide direct primary without any reservation about a State Convention. Governor Sulzer in this is right. We are glad that the Progressives in New York are backing up the Democratic Governor in this issue. The bill the Governor advocates provides for a substitute for the State Convention. Thousands and thousands of voters scattered all over the State cannot of course draw up together a platform such as is adopted at a State Convention. If a clear and explicit statement of party principles is to be put forth, it must be prepared by a representative body; and if the State Convention is to be abolished, some other body must be provided for, or the voters must get a knowledge of the party principles by inference from the speeches of candidates. A responsible utterance seems to us plainly preferable to inferences from speeches casually heard and read. It is therefore desirable to provide for a body to construct the party platform. According to the Sulzer Bill, this body would consist of the members of the State Committee and certain candidates of the party or members of the party in the Legislature. There is no reason why such a body may not draw up its platform after public hearings such as those that characterized the Progressive conventions last year. In one particular at least, we believe the bill can be improved—namely, by giving the State Committee authority to suggest candidates to the voters; and possibly other improvements can be suggested; but the general principles of the bill should be enacted into law. The fact that just before Governor Hughes left office he consented to a compromise by which the State Convention was retained, whereas now Governor Sulzer is directing his chief efforts to the elimination of the State Convention, is a measure of the advance that has taken place in public sentiment. This bill will be before the New York Legislature, which has been called together in extraordinary session by the Governor for this purpose. The people of the State of New York, without regard to party, should bring pressure to bear upon the Legislature that the Sulzer Bill, substantially as it is, may be adopted.

An Extradition Decision

The United States Supreme Court has upheld the action of Judge Blair, a committing magistrate in New Jersey, in ordering the extradition to Italy of Porter Charlton, who is charged with the murder of his wife at Lake Como, just three years ago. The case, apart from its sensational and horrible aspects, involves an important and unusual question regarding treaty relations. Our treaty with Italy provides for the extradition of persons accused of crimes committed in Italy when those persons are found in this country. But, contrary to the usual extradition relations between two countries, Italy has not agreed to extradite to this country persons accused of crime here who have escaped to Italy. This, on the face of it, appears to be a very unequal and unfair arrangement. Italy's contention, however, is that under Italian law Italy can try in that country a person accused of crime committed in another country and arrested in Italy. Nothing of the kind could, of course, be done under American law in the case of an Italian who has committed crime in Italy and escaped to America. Objections to such a criminal trial are obvious. It would be all but impossible to get witnesses across the ocean; and

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in other ways the procedure would be so unmanageable that it would be hardly conceivable that convictions could be found. To put it briefly, it is a good deal easier to move the criminal than to move the evidence. Nevertheless, the treaty stands as above indicated, and the Supreme Court has now established a precedent which must prevail in future cases. Justice Lurton, who handed down the opinion, declared that the refusal of Italy to surrender our citizens had no bearing upon the question whether, under accepted principles of international law, citizens are to be regarded as not embraced within an extradition treaty unless expressly included. It may well be asked whether a change in our treaty agreement as to extradition with Italy ought not to be proposed by our Government.

A Battle with Moros

Many people who do not understand the racial and geographical conditions of the Philippines were surprised last week to read cable accounts of a battle between the United States troops and natives, described by General Pershing in his despatch as an engagement than which "there has been no fiercer battle since American occupation." What! such ill-informed persons might exclaim, is fighting still going on in the Philippines twelve years after the surrender of Aguinaldo? The fact that the Island of Jolo (or, as it is sometimes called, Sulu) is six or seven hundred miles from Manila, and that the archipelago of which it forms a part is occupied by people as different from the Filipino around Manila as the Apache Indians are from New England farmers, is the explanation. The Moros of Mindanao and of the Jolo Islands to its southwest are Mohammedans, fanatics, and fierce fighters. In Mindanao a great deal has been done both to make our rule acceptable to the Moros and to put them in the way of advance in commerce and civilization generally. The object of American rulers has been consistently to establish peace throughout the islands. Everything possible in the way of conciliation and friendship has been offered, and, generally speaking, our relations with the Moros are constantly improving. In the remote districts like this Island of Jolo hostility still exists. General Pershing, who is the commander of the Department of Mindanao (General Franklin Bell commanding the Philippine division of the army), believed that to secure permanent peace in the mountain and island districts it was essential that the Moros should be disarmed. Some of the tribes resented this, and, after their traditional war methods, intrenched themselves in the mountains. A long period of campaigning has followed, and, we judge, came to its climax when our troops, after fierce fighting, captured the main intrenchment of the natives on Thursday of last week. What the loss of the Moros was is not known, but it is said that near the end of the fighting they almost literally threw themselves on the bayonets of the American soldiers, and that few escaped alive. Our loss was four or six killed (cable accounts differ), including Captain Taylor A. Nichols, and several wounded. The despatches also state that the Sultan of Jolo headed the resistance; it is thought at Washington that this may be an error, as he has always been well disposed towards our Government. The indications are that with the battle of last week in this extremely remote corner of the Philippines all resistance to American rule has come to an end.

The Situation in Mexico

That the Huerta Government in Mexico has a difficult if not impossible task before it in establishing itself over the entire country is increasingly evident. The capture by the Constitutionalists, as the northern anti-Huerta forces call themselves, of Zacatecas, the capital of the State of that name, was announced last week. This success of the "rebels," added to the strength of Governor Carranza, who has formed a government of his own in the State of Coahuila close by, and added also to the loss by Huerta of the port of Matamoras, makes the power of the Constitutionalists formidable in a part of Mexico which is advanced in many ways beyond most of those sections of the country distant from the capital. To reverse this situation calls for military (and probably naval) campaigns of an extensive and costly kind. Meanwhile press despatches assert that the condition of Americans in Mexico is becoming more and more uncomfortable, that refugees are leaving the country in numbers and often after serious sacrifices, and that our State Department is constantly receiving appeals for protection. It is asserted also that American properties are being raided in the regions controlled by the insurgents, while among the followers of Huerta anti-American feeling

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has developed. The cause ascribed for this last fact is the refusal of the United States to recognize the present Government. Ambassador Wilson still remains at Mexico City, and one reason supposed to influence President Wilson in not appointing a new and Democratic Ambassador is that such an act would be in itself a recognition of the Huerta Government. Charges have been freely made that Ambassador Wilson, in the unhappy and tragical Madero-Huerta struggle, was too strongly inclined to early recognition of the Government which to many seemed based on treachery and murder. The situation is a difficult one internationally as well as internally.

Not a Martyr

The misguided, and at least semi-demented, woman who threw herself in the way of the Derby race-horses died last week from the injuries incurred by her insensate act. Mrs. Pankhurst declares, "The world is thrilled with admiration at Miss Davison's splendid heroism." We have seen no sign that any one outside the ranks of the small body of so-called militant suffragettes believes that heroism or martyrdom is a word applicable to this tragedy. Miss Davison was in fact the victim of the hysterical unreason preached by Mrs. Pankhurst and accepted and applied through mischievous or criminal deeds by a few score women who confound such sporadic force with revolution, and have no sane conception of social order or of the right way to gain public sympathy. Pity the poor victim of delusion, but remember, to quote the New York "Sun," that in "mercifully acquitting her from blame for her crime public sentiment will only indict the more forcibly those who were responsible for creating the distracted condition of mind that prompted her to the deed." The tragedy has not helped the militant cause in the least. For some time it has been apparent that the vast majority of English men and women are convinced that the question of suffrage must be left to orderly discussion and established political processes. It would be a wise course for the great International Woman Suffrage Congress now being held at Budapest, with delegates from twenty-six countries, to record its conviction in favor of law and order. That orderly agitation may be productive of what the woman suffragists desire was illustrated last week by the adoption of a woman franchise bill in the Norwegian Storthing and by the passage in the Illinois Legislature of a limited woman suffrage bill. The former enlarges the privilege formerly accorded only to women taxpayers so as to put women on the same suffrage basis as men; the latter gives women the right to vote for officers whose election is controlled by the State statutes, as Presidential electors, but not for officers whose election is controlled by the State Constitution, as Governor and United States Senators and Representatives.

The Balkan Allies at Odds

The "Peace of London" closed the Balkan War. What do nations do after they make peace? Disband and demobilize their forces. But there has been no demobilization of the forces of the Balkan allies during the fortnight since the treaty was signed. The trouble has been that Bulgaria claimed as hers a part of Macedonia which had been captured by the Greeks and Servians. The Greeks and Servians resented the Bulgarian claim and protested Bulgaria's rejoinder was that she was in the right and would make no concessions. Actual fighting thereupon occurred here and there in the disputed territory between the Bulgarians and Greeks in the south and the Bulgarians and Servians in the north. The Greek and Servian Governments made another and more vigorous protest. They allowed it to be seen that, in case Bulgaria still resisted, she might expect a proclamation by them of the annexation of all the territory in question and an armed conflict in defense of that territory. Enjoying, as they do, superior strategic positions, and fairly well supplied with the sinews of war, the Greeks and Servians did not hesitate to oppose the hundreds of thousands of seasoned Bulgarian fighting men still in the field. The situation might have gone from bad to worse but for one anchor to windward. Fortunately, in March, 1912, Bulgaria and Servia agreed that if they fought Turkey and won territory from her, and if any such territory were in dispute between the victors, the Russian Emperor's decision in the matter would be binding. As a matter of fact, Bulgaria and Servia were not living up to their agreement. They had not united to request the Russian Emperor's arbitration. Meanwhile they were enough at odds not to check the sporadic fighting already begun and even to stop railway communication be-

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tween themselves. Hence Nicholas II felt compelled, in the interests of peace, to warn them that, in view of the agreement of 1912, they were engaged in "a criminal struggle." Nor did he stop with reminding them of their agreement; he *offered* his arbitration.

The Russian Emperor Saves the Situation

Immediately on this, Sir Edward Grey, British Foreign Minister, speaking in the House of Commons, expressed the hope of the Powers that Bulgaria and Servia would accept the Russian Emperor's offer. Sir Edward could do this with special influence, for he had successfully presided over the Conference of the Powers which brought the Balkan War to an end. He declared that he could not too strongly describe the disappointment and disapproval of the Powers which any outbreak of war among the Balkan allies would cause. First of all, as he justly said, such an outbreak would deprive them of Europe's sympathy—and Sir Edward did not hesitate to remind them in detail of what that sympathy had secured for them. Secondly, he warned them that a war among themselves would furnish Turkey with exactly the opportunity she wanted and expected, an opportunity to take from the now disunited allies the territory they had taken from her. This, we are sure, made Bulgaria and Servia pause. They know as well as any one can know that as long as the Balkan States were at odds with one another, each was the plaything of Turkish intrigue influencing European diplomacy. They also know better than any one else can know that eight months of Balkan union have pushed Turkey into the background and have changed the map of Europe. As this conviction was sinking deeper and deeper, there came a sharp intimation from St. Petersburg that a disregard of the treaty of 1912, followed as it had been by the Russian Emperor's personal appeal, would be followed by military measures on the part of Russia as the leading Slav power in the interest of peace among all the Slav states. This, we are glad to say, brought to their senses those who had disregarded what they had by treaty sworn to perform; it is now announced that Bulgaria and Servia have finally accepted the proposed arbitration. In his domestic policy Nicholas II is commonly regarded as a tyrant. Perhaps he is. Probably he is. But as to his foreign policy history will, in our opinion, record at least notable deeds to his lasting credit—the summoning of the first Hague Peace Conference in 1899, and the guardianship of Balkan peace in 1913.

Shevket Pasha

In the hour when Turkey loses most of her European territory she also loses one who has been called her ablest man, Shevket Pasha. He was an Arab and was born at Bagdad. When a mere boy he came to Constantinople, attended the military school there, and, though only eighteen years old, was graduated with highest honors. After that he spent ten years studying in Germany and returned to his country an enthusiast concerning German military methods. He attempted to model the Turkish army after that of the Kaiser. It was not his fault, we believe, that the Turkish army went to pieces as it did in the Balkan War. It is one thing to institute good methods; it is quite another thing to carry them out, and for the latter Shevket had neither the means nor the men. That he was conscious of this is shown in his strenuous efforts to prevent the Balkan War. He knew that the Turkish troops could not show what was expected of them. Inspired by the same conviction, he declared himself, on several occasions during the conflict, ready for peace; indeed, from the very beginning of hostilities he had worked to bring them to a close. He was appropriately one of those present at the Grand Council of the Empire which last January agreed to the proposal made by the European Powers to end the war. As to Shevket's political life, when he found that under the old Sultan there was no hope of political or other regeneration, he did not hesitate to co-operate with the Young Turks to bring about the Sultan's downfall. The present Sultan gained greatly by Shevket's services, first as War Minister and later as Grand Vizier. In both of these positions Shevket acted as independently as possible and made many enemies. They suspected him of being implicated in the killing of the late Nazim Pasha, and hence finally brought about the Grand Vizier's murder. Both assassinations intensify the gloom and pathos of the situation in Turkey. However much one may scorn the uncivilization which has always characterized the course of the Turkish Government, one cannot withhold admiration from brave men. And Turkish history is full of individual instances of high heroism.

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Commencement Notes

The earliest baccalaureate addresses that have come to our notice lay emphasis, as have those of preceding years, on efficiency for the public welfare as inherent in the very nature of an American university, as instituted and endowed for unselfish service of the commonwealth. The two things for which New York University stands, said Chancellor Brown, are that a young man should learn to focus his powers on things that are worth while, and also learn how not to live unto himself. "Has the university taught you these lessons?" The university will be judged by the efficiency with which its graduates devote themselves to the public good. At Columbia University President Butler incisively criticised the wide preference of superficial brilliancy to thoroughness, the absorption in current excitements which does not seek for controlling principles. President Hibben, of Princeton University, contrasted the self-absorbed will to live with the unselfish will to serve. Indifference to human need he branded as the unpardonable sin. "There comes to you from many quarters," said he, "the call of your kind. It is the human cry of spirits in bondage, of souls in despair, of lives debased and doomed. It is the call of man to his brother. This is your vocation; follow it in the name of God and man." The degree of LL.D. was conferred on Count von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador; Dr. Simon Flexner, of the Rockefeller Institute, received that of Doctor of Science, and President Howard S. Bliss, of the Protestant College at Beirut, the doctorate of divinity. At New York University, when the honorary LL.D. was conferred on Mr. Whitman, District Attorney of New York County, the audience stood and cheered enthusiastically. Among its other recipients was the Uruguayan Minister, Señor Carlos Maria de Pena. Another distinguished foreigner received the honorary D.D., Professor August Karl Reischauer, of Tokyo, Japan. The honorary list at Columbia included the eminent names of Colonel Gorgas, chief sanitary officer of the Canal Zone; Daniel Chester French, the sculptor; Dr. Cadman, pastor of the Central Congregational Church, Brooklyn, and Dr. Alexis Carrel, distinguished in surgery and biological research. At the Western Reserve University, Cleveland, a special feature on successive days was the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of its affiliated College for Women. Historical tableaux presented by alumnæ commemorated "the contributions made by women to civilization." At Princeton a bronze statue symbolizing the Spirit of Truth was unveiled. It commemorates the origin of the Christian Student Federation on the site where it has been placed.

Education in the West

The celebration recently of the seventy-fifth anniversary of Monticello Seminary for Young Women at the little village of Godfrey on the Mississippi River in southwestern Illinois brings to mind in a somewhat startling fashion the fact that the educational development of the Middle West has been as astonishing as its material development. Indeed, it is not at all unlikely that the material growth of the West has been due in not a small measure to the educational enthusiasm of its earliest settlers—an enthusiasm which in these later days has been translated into the visible forms of such institutions as the University of Chicago and the University of Wisconsin, with reputations extending across both the Atlantic and the Pacific. The somewhat romantic history of Monticello Seminary deserves mention because it is typical of the sacrifices that were made for education by the pioneers of the early part of the last century. Monticello opened its doors to students on April 11, 1838, five months later than Mount Holyoke Seminary in Massachusetts. At that time there was not a single city in the State of Illinois. St. Louis in Missouri, the metropolis of the West, had seven thousand inhabitants, while Chicago could boast of only four thousand inhabitants. A retired sea captain, Captain Godfrey by name, in his voyages around the world had observed the close relation existing between women's position in society and the civilization of the community. Captain Godfrey proposed to Dr. Baldwin, an educational expert and a graduate of Yale in the class of '27, to take charge of an institution for "female education" which he intended to found. Dr. Baldwin visited Mary Lyon, the creator of Mount Holyoke, and for a whole day sat with her on a pile of bricks talking of the subject nearest her heart, while she checked off the loads of brick then being delivered for Mount Holyoke's first building. Monticello's first building was erected by Dr. Baldwin with stone quarried on the banks of the Mississippi and carried in ox carts on a road cut through the forest five miles to the location of the new seminary, for the construction of which Dr. Baldwin had brought

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material, workmen, teachers, and ideas from the East. Although the first building was popularly known as "Godfrey's Folly," the school has prospered, is endowed, and fills a useful place in the educational system of the Middle West. Its chief work is to give to young women graduates of high schools, who cannot give the time for a full four years' course in one of the universities or one of the colleges for women, a one or two years' course in academic or collegiate subjects. We should suppose that both the physical and intellectual needs of Monticello Seminary would be looked after generously by the people of Illinois, for it was one of the earliest manifestations of that ineradicable love of learning which has produced the great educational system of the State and which was one of the elements of a social life on the frontier that gave the United States in Abraham Lincoln its greatest President.

International Athletics

Public attention during the last two weeks has been diverted somewhat from professional baseball by two international contests of great importance. America has beaten Australia at tennis, and at Meadow Brook we have locked mallets with England for what is practically the polo championship of the world. By defeating Australia America is advanced to the second round of the battle for the Davis trophy. Germany has already defeated France at Wiesbaden, and will play next with America. The victor of that contest will meet the winner of the teams from Belgium, South Africa, and Canada. The winner of that contest will in turn be paired with England for the championship. Both the contest for the Davis trophy on the courts of the West Side Tennis Court of New York, and the preliminary practice for the great polo match on Long Island, were marked by the highest of sportsmanship and good feeling. Of unusual interest is the fact that members of the American polo team played in practice against the British challengers in order that their friendly foes might be provided with opponents strong enough to bring forth their best efforts. As first constituted the American team consisted of the four veterans who first won from England and then successfully defended the coveted cup. An eleventh-hour shake-up, worthy the courage of Courtney of Cornell, left only Millburn at No. 4. Then Foxhall Keene broke his collar-bone, and the line-up was changed back again to include the two Waterburys, Millburn, and Whitney. This rapid shifting of players filled the followers of the American game with decided misgiving as to the outcome of the series. The first match, however, resulted in a decisive victory for the American team by a score of 5½ to 3. Contrary to expectations, the American ponies proved the fleetest-footed on the field, a fact which added much to the effectiveness of the brilliant and dashing team-play of the defenders.

Advertising as a Profession

The extent to which American advertising has become a profession with principles ethics, and etiquette almost if not quite as exacting as those which control the lawyer and the doctor, is indicated by the remarkable Convention of the Associated Advertising Clubs of America which was held last week at Baltimore. The Convention was attended by over six thousand registered delegates who were either actively interested in or closely connected with the advertising business. The Convention began its sessions on Sunday, June 8, when the pulpits of twenty-nine of the churches of Baltimore were occupied by lay preachers, all of them being men well known in the advertising business. This lay preaching, which was introduced for the first time at the eighth annual Convention at Dallas, Texas, last year, has now become one of the notable features of these conventions. One of these lay sermons, by Thomas Dreier, of Cambridge, Massachusetts, we shall print in an early issue of The Outlook. Mr. Dreier's sermon was preached in the North Avenue Baptist Church of Baltimore, and his subject was "The Business of Being a Man." Nothing can be more significant of the marked change that has come during the last ten years in the American business man's own view of his relation to his work than this Baltimore Convention with its twenty-nine lay sermons preached on Sunday and its numerous addresses at daily conferences during the week. These conferences were devoted each to a particular branch of advertising—the magazine men, the newspaper men, the street car men, the billboard men, the advertising agents, the advertising managers of commercial houses, etc. The delegates at this Convention are eminently practical men, and represent a trade or profession the

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watchword of which is in a peculiar sense the word "success." But the whole atmosphere of the Convention was permeated with the idea that the only permanent commercial success and the only success worth working for is the success of honest service. One entire session was given up to the subject of clean and honest advertising, and resolutions were passed pledging the publishers to use every endeavor to decline all advertising that is in any way open to suspicion as being unworthy of confidence. Many of the advertisers present expressed their desire to co-operate along this line with the publishers in bringing legal proceedings against violators of the laws pertaining to fraudulent advertising which are in force in a number of States. This movement for honest social service in advertising has manifested itself during the last nine or ten years in the growth of a number of clubs all over the country comprising in their membership men interested in all the different lines of advertising. These clubs have now become affiliated in a National association with a National influence.

The Newspaper and Advertising

The evils of advertising are not all comprised in the word fraudulent. There is considerable advertising in the United States which is perfectly sincere and honest and yet which is not of good service to the public because it is bombastic. We wish somebody had spoken at the Baltimore Convention on some such subject as "Spreadeagleism in Advertising." Advertisers are often tempted to assume that big adjectives, big type, and big assertions have great influence upon the public mind. This is peculiarly true of a good many American newspapers which have felt the blighting influence of yellow journalism. Our notice was recently attracted to an advertisement of the Philadelphia "Public Ledger" that is so delightful a contrast to claims which are made for "greatness" because of bigness that we reprint it. The title of the advertisement was "The Political Influence of the 'Public Ledger,'" and it reads as follows:

> Commenting on the price of the "Public Ledger," a subscriber writes: "In the coming battle against the 'gang' your paper is needed by the mass of voters and not by the select few who are able, or at least willing, to pay the increased cost."
>
> The "Public Ledger" is intended for the intelligent masses; the unintelligent masses would not have it as a gift. If there is any class of people who are more responsible than another for the impression that Philadelphia is "corrupt and contented" it is the smug and self-complacent class who sit in leather chairs in the clubs on Broad and Walnut Streets, and do not care enough for their city to disturb themselves with party regularity and the established order. If the "Public Ledger" can get under the skin of such "classes" and arouse them to action, it can do a service to Philadelphia that could not possibly be accomplished by a cheap paper appealing to the unintelligent masses.
>
> In the coming political battle, whether the "Public Ledger" cuts a small or large figure will depend entirely *upon the stuff in its columns* [the italics are ours], and not upon the price at which it is sold.

The stuff in my automobiles, the stuff in my clothing, the stuff in my soap, the stuff in my books—this is what the advertiser should insist upon rather than upon the bigness of output or what has been the bane of the American book publishing trade, namely, "best-seller-ism."

Charles Augustus Briggs

Popular reputation often draws a poor likeness. This was decidedly the case in regard to Professor Charles Augustus Briggs, who died last week. Whatever general reputation he had outside of the distinctly limited circle of theological and Biblical scholars was derived mainly from the so-called "Briggs Trial." He was accused of heresy; and though the local authorities of his denomination sustained him, his case was brought before the National body—the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church. No man was less fitted in temperament for the rôle of heretic than he, except perhaps in one particular—his inability to yield his convictions to either threat or enticement. Those convictions were, however, predominantly the convictions of a conservatively-minded man. His doctrinal beliefs were what most people would regard as highly orthodox in Protestant circles; and he was not out of sympathy altogether with tenets that are ordinarily regarded as rather distinctively those of the orthodox Catholic. Indeed, one of his most pronounced traits was his belief in the possibility of reconciling to one another, through the acceptance of common doctrinal standards, the great branches of the Christian Church. The point on which he aroused the hostilities of the orthodox was in regard to the methods of Biblical criticism. All branches

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of the Church recognize the value of study of the Bible and exalt Biblical scholarship. No branch of the Church regards as impious or heretical the practice of examining minutely and assiduously the books of the Bible. The difference between Dr. Briggs and his opponents arose over the methods which he used; but there would not have been any conflict over these methods if Dr. Briggs had, through these methods, arrived at the conclusions at which his opponents believed he should have arrived. It was because Dr. Briggs had opinions concerning the authorship of certain books of the Bible and concerning similar questions which were contrary to what has been at times popularly accepted tradition, that certain men in the Presbyterian Church brought charges of heresy against him. The trial did not, of course, in any respect deter Dr. Briggs from his method of study or change his conclusions. It had no effect in hindering the work of modern Biblical scholars; it simply resulted in Dr. Briggs's change of allegiance from the Presbyterian to the Episcopal Church, and in advertising him as a man of radical temper, which was quite contrary to the truth. Most of the men who have taken his course in Union Theological Seminary would be willing to state that there was no one in the faculty of that institution who impressed his students as being more conservative in temperament and in ideas than Dr. Briggs. The contribution which he has made to Biblical scholarship is large and lasting. He had a knowledge of the Hebrew that very few men have attained. His books are recognized by scholars in all languages as works of great value and as eminent among the scholarly productions of his time. They will be still longer remembered as furnishing an occasion for one of the important achievements in the interest of religious freedom.

When Abraham Hired an Ox

There have recently appeared several works dealing with early Babylonian and Chaldean business transactions based on the translations of clay tablets, and one of them which dates from a period not later than 2000 B.C. is particularly interesting to Old Testament students. It is cited by Dr. George A. Barton in his lecture on "The Historical Value of Patriarchal Narratives," recently delivered before the American Philosophical Society, as quoted in a recent number of "Science." Among scholars or near-scholars who have denied or defended the historical accuracy of the Pentateuch there have been some who have denied that there ever were such *individuals* as Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, Joseph, etc., claiming that such men never existed; that they represented "tribal myths" which had grown up about fictitious individuals like the demigods and mythological heroes of more northern lands. But these recently discovered tablets show at least this: that the names of Jacob, Abraham, and Joseph were common in Babylonia long before 2000 B.C., and there are abundant proofs that there were migrations from Babylonia to Palestine in those early days. Dr. Barton says that historical study makes it quite probable that real men stand behind the stories of Joseph, Jacob, and Abraham. One of the most interesting documents quoted to substantiate this position is a contract to which an Abraham was a party; it is as follows:

ONE OX BROKEN TO THE YOKE,
AN OX OF IBNI-SIN SON OF SIN-IMGURANI,
FROM IBNI-SIN
THROUGH THE AGENCY OF KISHTI-NABIUM,
SON OF ETERU,
ABARAMA [*i.e.*, ABRAHAM], SON OF AWEL ISHTAR
HAS HIRED FOR 1 MONTH

FOR 1 MONTH
1 SHEKEL OF SILVER
HE WILL PAY.
OF IT ½ SHEKEL OF SILVER
FROM THE HAND OF ABARAMA
KISHTI-NABIUM HAS RECEIVED.

The Dollar Mark and Art

"$200,000 for a Rembrandt," "$2,500 a night for Caruso"—such are the headlines in the newspapers to which one is getting accustomed. They over-emphasize what real friends of art, whether in the departments of painting or music or in any other, are loth to emphasize—the connection of money therewith. It may be worth while, however, to recognize that the $200,000 paid for a Rembrandt in Paris last week was the record price for a work of art offered at public auction. The picture in question was Rembrandt's "Bathsheba." It belonged to the Steengracht Collection, and was sold at the well-known Galerie Georges Petit. The picture bears the date 1643, and therefore antedates Rembrandt's portrayal of the same subject in 1654. The later painting hangs in the Louvre at Paris and is familiar to those who know that gallery well. The picture sold last week became a part of the collection

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of William IV of Holland, who sold it for two hundred and sixty-five Dutch florins ($106). It went from collection to collection, naturally at steadily increasing prices, and finally, in 1841, the last time it was previously offered for sale, brought something over $41,000. The difference between that price and the one received the other day marks the deserved appreciation of Rembrandt which has come about in our time.

Roman Catholic Work Among the Lepers

We are glad to learn that Father Damien's work at Molokai, one of the Hawaiian Islands, continues in efficiency. It has been in charge of Joseph Dutton, a native of Vermont, who served through the Civil War. He was inspired to missionary endeavor of the most strenuous sort, and, hearing of Father Damien's endeavors, went to the Hawaiian leper settlement and has never left it since. He and Father Damien built with their own hands the first home. There are about a thousand lepers at present in the settlement, so we learn from "America," the Jesuit weekly; the women are attended by five Sisters, and the men by Mr. Dutton and four other lay Brothers, while two priests and an organized staff care for their spiritual and medical needs. For a generation Mr. Dutton has lived continuously with these leprous outcasts, and looks forward to a grave among them. "America" also calls attention to two other heroes, both in Madagascar. After serving there as military chaplain in the French campaign, Isidore Dupuy returned to the natives of the district of Ymerina, where leprosy is rampant, to arrest, if possible, the progress of the disease. The lepers were confined to hospitals which were really prisons, for a leper is a public menace. Father Dupuy lived among these persons, ministering to their souls and bodies, knowing that he would be attacked by the malady. He was, and died last autumn. In a neighboring district lived Father Beyzim, a Pole. The first leper hospital to which he came was in such condition that five or six deaths were reported every week. But his success was great enough before his recent death to change this rate to five deaths a year! The priests near Nanning, in China, have also shown heroism, but it has lately met with a terrible rebuff. Having declared that the lepers were "rejected of Heaven," the bigoted inhabitants also declared that it was impious to succor them. Accordingly, with the active connivance of the authorities, thirty-nine lepers were segregated at a certain point, surrounded by soldiers and driven into a large pit, into which petrol was poured. The lepers were burned and shot to death. Although the officials cannot escape responsibility, the tragedy need not necessarily be a reproach to the new Chinese Republic. The officials were republican in title only, and really belonged to the barbarous reactionaries of the Boxer type, who would not even let good be done by the despised foreigner.

Lauro Müller

There is much talk about race mixture these days. It is worth while, therefore, to note the case of a man, now to the fore in newspaper chronicle, who more than any other seems to represent the mixture of Teuton and Latin. We refer to Senhor Lauro Severiano Müller, Brazilian Minister of Foreign Affairs. Last week, coming on a Brazilian battle-ship, Dr. Müller arrived in this country, officially to return the visit to Brazil made by our Minister of Foreign Affairs—or, as we should say, our Secretary of State. In 1906 Senator, then Secretary, Root went to South America, and established a better understanding and friendlier relation between our Government and Latin American Governments than had ever existed. It was appropriate, therefore, that Senhor Müller's welcome here should be ample. Two of our battle-ships and several torpedo-boats put to sea to meet the Brazilian dreadnought. It was further welcomed on its arrival by the big guns from the battleships now in Hampton Roads. Secretary Bryan, Senator Root, and the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, accompanied by the Brazilian Ambassador, received Dr. Müller on the President's yacht, the Mayflower. Senhor Müller, whose parents are German, was born in the Brazilian State of Santa Catharina, the population of which is largely German. He was educated in the schools of his State, and, as soon as he could, showed the stuff that was in him by helping to abolish slavery and to get going the movement which ultimately proclaimed the Brazilian Republic. Dr. Müller was appropriately one of the signers of the Constitution of the Republic. He has served both as Deputy and Senator in the National Congress at Rio de Janeiro, and has occupied various

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positions in the Brazilian Cabinet. Senhor Müller's visit should also serve to call attention to Brazil's increasingly strong position as one of the three leading republics of South America.

THE BORDERLAND AND THE NATION

One of the sources of strength of the United States is its dual form of government, by which those questions that concern the Nation as a whole are referred to the authority of the Federal Government, and those questions which concern the local community are referred to the authority of the several States. This, which is a source of strength, has in practice proved also a source of weakness. It has produced a borderland between the jurisdiction of the one and that of the other, so that there has been doubt as to whether there was any power, either of the Nation or of the State, to settle certain questions. It has also resulted in a tendency to exalt too highly the power of the local authorities, especially in matters which vitally concern the Nation as a whole.

Two decisions just rendered by the United States Supreme Court are of far-reaching importance in establishing the supremacy of the Federal Government over the important domains of railway transportation and water power development, and thus both in eliminating this borderland and in making effective the Federal power.

The one decision is in the so-called Minnesota rate cases, the other in the grouped cases which may be known as the Chandler-Dunbar cases. The immediate questions at issue in each of the cases were of far less importance than the underlying principles on which the Court rested its decision, and the Court's interpretation of those principles.

In the rate cases particularly there has apparently arisen in the public mind considerable confusion as to the meaning of the decision.

The decision in the rate cases declares that the Constitution gives Congress adequate authority to provide effective regulation of inter-State commercial intercourse as the National interest may demand, and to secure the freedom of such intercourse from State control. It declares, further, that to each State is reserved the control of such commerce as is confined within that State and does not affect other States.

The first effect of the decision is to eliminate in the province of the regulation of railways the borderland between State and Nation, or, as it has been called, the "twilight zone." The State may regulate railway commerce within the State. It may regulate intra-State commerce as the interest of the people of the State requires, even though in such regulation inter-State commerce may incidentally or indirectly be involved. There is no twilight zone in which neither the State nor the Nation has the right to control. It is true that there are subjects peculiarly of local concern and of the class with which the State appropriately deals and yet which have such a relation to inter-State commerce as to be within the reach of the Federal power. But such subjects are not to be left to the unrestrained will of individuals merely because Congress has not acted in relation to them. The right of the people to have the province of railway transportation under the regulation of the public power cannot be made to fall between two stools.

The authority of the State to regulate intra-State transportation is State-wide. It has but one limitation—the Constitutional power of Congress over inter-State commerce and its instruments. The authority of the State is sure and undeniable. But it cannot interfere with or lessen the authority of Congress.

In inter-State commerce Congress is supreme. It cannot be deprived of one particle of its supremacy even by the action of a State in exercising its undoubted power over intra-State commerce. On this point the Court is emphatic:

> To suppose . . . that the exercise of this acknowledged power of the State may be permitted to create an irreconcilable conflict with the authority of the Nation, or that through an equipoise of powers an effective control of inter-State commerce is rendered impossible, is to overlook the dominant operation of the Constitution, which, creating a Nation, equipped it with an authority, supreme and plenary, to control National commerce and to prevent that control, exercised in the wisdom of Congress, from being obstructed or destroyed by any opposing action.

The difficulty of distinguishing inter-State transactions from intra-State transactions in many cases where they are closely associated cannot be allowed to detract from the supreme authority of Congress in its appointed sphere. The Court says again:

> The execution by Congress of its Constitutional power to regulate inter-State commerce is not limited by the fact that intra-State transactions may have become so interwoven there-

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with that the effective government of the former incidentally controls the latter.

Another paragraph of the opinion puts the whole matter cogently and succinctly:

It has been admittedly declared by this Court that as to those subjects which require a general system or uniformity of regulation, the power of Congress is exclusive. In other matters admitting of diversity of treatment, according to the special requirements of local conditions, the States may act within their respective jurisdiction until Congress sees fit to act; and when Congress does act, the exercise of its authority overrides all conflicting State legislation.

The principle laid down by the Court is clear. In whatever relates to inter-State commerce Congress is supreme. This is true even in cases in which intra-State commerce is affected by the action of Congress. With this qualification the State is supreme in whatever relates to intra-State commerce. In those subjects where inter-State and intra-State commerce are interwoven the State may act until Congress decides to act. If Congress does act, its action supersedes all conflicting State legislation. Of the necessity for Federal action Congress is the judge.

The decision has been claimed on the one hand as a victory for the State and on the other as a victory for the railways. It is in reality a victory for both, and for the Federal Government as well.

For the State it establishes the right of control over all exclusively intra-State transportation, and of all transportation, however mixed in character, if Congress has not assumed the control. For the Nation it establishes the right of supreme control over inter-State transportation even when intra-State commerce is interwoven with it. For the railways it gives the assurance that they may be freed by Congressional action from State interference with any commerce not exclusively intra-State in character.

The Chandler-Dunbar decision clears up an equally cloudy situation in relation to the development of water powers. It establishes the complete authority of the Federal Government over water power developed or capable of development on navigable streams. The Supreme Court has unequivocally declared:

1. That in the regulation of navigation—and to regulate means to develop—the United States is a single Government, and as to that governmental function there are no States.

2. Where, when, and how such improvements in navigation are to be made is a legislative question for Congressional determination.

3. Such improvement may be furthered by the utilization of the power inherent in navigable streams to the extent of making commercial use of such power over and above the needs of navigation. This power belongs to all the people, and not to the chance owner of the contiguous land.

This decision is of no less vital importance to the progress of our National development than that in the Minnesota rate cases. The water power inherent in the watercourses of the country is a great National asset. With the steady diminishing of the world's coal supply, and with the growing availability of electric energy derived from water power, its value as a National asset is constantly increasing. It is an asset which belongs to all the people and which should be developed for the benefit of all the people.

The Supreme Court has set the seal of its approval upon this principle. It has said that the water powers latent in navigable streams are a National possession, to be regulated, controlled, and developed under the direction of Congress and in its discretion.

A Federal policy of regulation of water power development is essential to our National development. Opposition to the adoption of such a policy by the National Government can no longer shelter itself behind Constitutional doubts. The issue can now be squarely joined between those who advocate development and regulation in the interest of the public welfare and those who favor development for the exclusive profit of private interests combined with no regulation. That the Nation has the power, and hence the responsibility, of regulating any future development of water power on navigable streams in the public interest is no longer open to question.

These two decisions of the Supreme Court will be historic because they have made it clear, in the one case, that there is in law no borderland where neither the Federal authority nor the State authority can be exercised, that where the authority of the Nation has not been exercised the authority of the State obtains, and that when there is any doubt as to whether the one power or the other has been exercised it should be resolved in favor of the Nation; and, in the second case, that in those matters which clearly concern the Nation as a whole, the power of the Federal authority is supreme and inclusive.

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HALT!

America had a treaty with Russia. The two countries disagreed in their interpretation of their respective rights and duties under that treaty. America, instead of proposing to Russia to submit the interpretation of the treaty to arbitration, gave Russia notice that we annulled the treaty. It has done what it could to weaken the old ties of friendship between these two nations.

America had a treaty with Japan. Japan believed that under that treaty the Japanese had a right to occupy agricultural possessions in the United States. Without waiting for conference with Japan and an endeavor to come to an agreement as to the rights of the Japanese under that treaty, California denied to Japan the rights which she supposed she possessed. America has thus done what it can to weaken the old-time friendship between Japan and America.

America had a treaty with England respecting the right to use the Panama Canal. America believed that under that treaty she had a right to exempt coastwise vessels from tolls. England believed that America had no such right. Instead of submitting this question of treaty interpretation to arbitration, Senators now propose to refuse to continue the treaty of arbitration. If America does refuse to continue that treaty, or, continuing the treaty, does refuse to arbitrate the Panama Canal question, it will do what it can to weaken the friendship between America and England.

America has intimate trade relations with Germany, perhaps more intimate than with any other nation except Great Britain. It is proposing to pass a tariff measure which Germans resent because they think it denies to them privileges of trade to which they are entitled, and they propose to express that resentment by legislation aimed at American interests. Thus America is doing what it can to provoke trade hostility between America and Germany.

Thus, by our careless, or our too expeditious, or our too inconsiderate action we have chilled the friendship of four great nations. We had a right to annul the treaty with Russia; we have a right to determine whom we will receive as residents within our borders; in The Outlook's opinion, we have a right to remit Panama tolls of coastwise vessels; and we do not question the right of America to pass such tariff measure as Americans think is for their interests.

But no nation is so strong that it can afford to disregard the interests or feelings or even the prejudices of its neighbors, and carelessly, ignorantly, and inconsiderately blunder into action which lessens their friendship if it does not arouse their hostility. It is time that the American people called a halt to their legislators, State and National.

WILLIAM II

A committee of the Norwegian Storthing, or Parliament, awards the Nobel peace prize. The prize is awarded at the end of each year. Last year the committee announced that it was unable to discover a person who, within the preceding twelve months, had "worked most or best for the fraternization of nations, the abolition or reduction of standing armies, or the calling or propagation of peace congresses." Had The Outlook been the Storthing it would have discharged this committee and appointed a new one, and it would have directed the Norwegians' gaze across the strait which separates Norway from Germany, and to the figure of one whose services for "the fraternization of nations" during 1912 had been of a high character—namely, the German Emperor.

At the beginning of that year William II found himself face to face with a war party. The petty jealousies and the larger envies of many years among the Germans had come to a head in their irritation at England's "interference" with Germany's ambitions in Morocco. The apparent lack of preparation on England's part—in our opinion, more apparent than real—gave to the bellicose Germans the chance to cry, "Now or never." The Outlook thought then and thinks now that England's "interference" concerning Morocco formed no sufficient cause for war. When this was expressed, the German chauvinists replied: "Never mind, if we cannot take the occasion we can make the occasion."

On this, those of the English who were timid had an immediate vision of the strongest army in Europe landing at Dover, and of German air-ships flying over the British Isles. There were unusual drills of volunteer organizations in the country, and patriotic plays in London called for loud applause. All this, of course, only added fuel to the German flame.

Now an armed conflict between England and Germany would be, we are convinced,

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supremely silly. Whatever trivial causes of difference there may be, England and Germany have, we are sure, no essential reason for a quarrel. There is rivalry between them, it is true, and increasingly keen rivalry. But it is found in the peaceful fields of trade and transportation. English residents in India and South Africa now buy goods in German rather than in English shops, and Americans going to Europe often take German rather than English ships. But in the field of politics there is, so it seems to us, nothing which may not be fairly adjusted.

There is one man in Germany who sees this clearly—the Kaiser. He had his hands full in trying to stem the war tide and in cooling the desire of those inflamed by the consciousness that Germany had emerged into the position of the most powerful nation on the European continent. They could not understand how a ruler who had insisted in maintaining his army at a high pitch of excellence and in increasing his navy from its former position to that of one second only to the navy of Great Britain could resist what seemed an inviting opportunity to settle once and for all the leadership of Europe.

The trouble with these persons was that they had made a mistake about the leadership. As we have seen in trade and transportation, so in political influence, Germany had attained a position of leadership second to none. Time was when the voice of the English sovereign might have been the most powerful in the councils of Europe. But that time has passed. To the present Emperor, we believe, more than to any other man, is due Germany's advance. Little by little, now by statements through his cautious Chancellor and now by a timely co-operation with the British Foreign Minister, William II put forth arguments which finally found lodgment in the minds of his subjects. The end of the year 1912 saw, therefore, an entirely different temper on the part of the German war party from that which had characterized it at the beginning of the year. The result was not only the avoidance of any outbreak between Germans and Britons, but the recognition of the fact that this peace could not have been kept without the Kaiser's guidance.

At the close of the year a new task met William II. A war broke out in the Balkan Peninsula which gave to Austria, Germany's ally, such unrest that the war party there was with difficulty restrained from direct armed interposition. This would probably have meant a European conflagration. The ultimate restraining force was found to be the German Emperor.

This crowns the Kaiser's labors. For on the twenty-fifth anniversary of his accession, which the Germans are now celebrating, they may recall that, coming to the throne with the name of "War Lord," he has given to the Fatherland a quarter-century of peace.

One reason why Germany has had peace is because she has been prepared for war. Possibly the Norwegians did not wish to give the Nobel peace prize to the Emperor because he had done no work in the direction of "the abolition or reduction of standing armies." As a matter of fact, however, the Kaiser's enthusiasm for the forces of war has no antagonism with his desire for peace.

With a consecration to the principle of peace, we in America shall have peace in proportion as we are prepared for war. Those who believe in our need for a strong army and navy are among the most forceful advocates of peace. We in America may well heed the example of the German Emperor.

THE REAL ISSUE IN THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH

The question of a change of name is being hotly debated in Episcopal circles. It will probably be the livest topic for discussion in the General Convention to be held next autumn. The present name is "The Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States of America." To this the agitators for a change present three principal objections:

It is too long and complex.

It is misleading: the term Protestant suggests that the Episcopal Church was born in the Reformation and was organized and is maintained to protest against the Roman Catholic Church.

It is sectarian: Protestant Episcopal suggests a church characterized by a peculiar form of doctrine and a peculiar form of church government, and a church so characterized is necessarily a sectarian church.

Four names have been proposed as substitutes for the present name:

The American Church.

The American Catholic Church.

The Holy Catholic Church.

The Episcopal Church.

To each of these names there are serious objections.

The first name is not true. The Episcopal

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Church is not "The American Church." To be entitled to that name it should either be the oldest church in America, or the most democratic church in America, or the largest church in America. And it is neither the oldest, nor the most democratic, nor the largest. The assumption of that name would be resented by every other Church in the land, and would effectually block the way to Church unity.

"The American Catholic Church" and "The Holy Catholic Church" are objectionable because they both assume a name by which another branch of the Christian Church is universally known. It would serve equally as an obstacle to union with other Protestant Churches, who would object to the doctrinal implications of the term Catholic, and to union with the Roman Catholic Church, which does not concede that the Episcopal Church is a branch of the Holy Catholic Church.

It is also objectionable becauses it assumes that one ecclesiastical organization can be the Holy Catholic Church to which all Christians owe allegiance. No church can make itself the catholic Church by simply calling itself Catholic.

To the title "The Episcopal Church" there is less objection. This is the name by which it is popularly known. Its adoption would involve a real change of *official* title, but not a real change in *popular* title. Three years ago it came very near adoption by the Episcopal General Convention. The chief objection to it is that it would be generally regarded as a public disavowal of Protestant principles and Protestant sympathies.

These objections, *pro* and *con*, appear to us to be mainly a veil to cover the real issue. Names are symbols. And the real issue which the Episcopal Church confronts to-day is older than Christianity. It is the issue between those who hold the regal and others who hold the paternal conception of the Deity. There are two conceptions of the Church which correspond to these conceptions of the Deity.

According to the first conception, God is a King. He can be approached only by the method and through the ministers he has appointed. His Son, Jesus Christ, constituted apostles, to whom he gave power to forgive sins. He authorized them to confer in turn that power on their successors. Thus a patent of spiritual nobility has been conferred on a long line of divinely appointed priests. They are the true mediators between God and men. In the mass they offer a perpetually recurring sacrifice for sins. Only as one avails himself of this sacrifice offered for him by the priest, and receives from God through the priest the absolution and remission of his sins, has he any assurance of divine forgiveness. Only these priests and those authorized by them have any right to proclaim the truths of divine life to ignorant and sinful men. Not to accept the provision thus offered is to be without the grace of God; not to belong to the Church thus constituted is to be a schismatic and disloyal to the King and to his Son, the Master and Founder of the Church.

According to the other conception, God is the All-Father; all men are his offspring; no mediator between him and his children and no special method of approach are required. The way is open for any child. Jesus Christ did not constitute any organization, or give to his apostles any peculiar power to forgive sins, or confer on them any authority to appoint successors. Moses, on Mount Sinai, told the children of Israel that if they would accept Jehovah as their God and keep his commandments, they should themselves be priests. It is still true that whoever seeks the companionship of God by obedience to his will becomes by that obedience a friend and needs no other mediator. Jesus told his disciples that whoever entered into the fold by the door becomes a shepherd of the sheep, and John declared that whoever heareth the Gospel invitation may repeat it to others. No other appointment to preach the Gospel than this is required. Paul received no apostolic ordination, and Paul was an apostle. Dwight L. Moody was never ordained, and Dwight L. Moody's success as a preacher was the all-sufficient certificate of his divine appointment to the ministry. The Lord's Supper is a memorial supper, not a sacrifice. The Gospel knows no other sacrifice than self-sacrifice in love and for love's sake.

The first of these conceptions is popularly known by the name Catholic; the second of these conceptions is popularly known by the name Protestant. At present both conceptions live together in the Episcopal Church. The abolition of the word Protestant and the substitution of the word Catholic in the title of that Church would mean, and by the world would be taken to mean, that the

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Church has rejected the paternal conception of God and substituted the regal conception of God; that it ceases to stand for the Protestant doctrine of man's direct and immediate approach to his Father, and has put in its place the doctrine of a separation between man and his King, which necessitates the mediation of a specially authorized priesthood, a specially constituted Church, and a continuously repeated sacrifice for sin.

This is the real issue in the Episcopal Church as we think it will generally be understood by the great body of thoughtful readers outside that communion. The position of The Outlook on that issue needs no defining here.[1]

THE NEW EAST

While diplomacy, more or less selfish and therefore short-sighted, is striving to adjust relations between the so-called Great Powers in the West and the Rising Powers in the East, and China is enduring the birth-pangs of a nation, and the whole East is restless with a new consciousness of the possibilities of future growth and power, there are great unifying forces at work of which the newspapers take small account, but which have immense significance for both hemispheres. An Englishman long resident in China, after describing minutely the conditions in the section of the country in which he lived, said to an American who was his deeply interested listener: "You probably see the large situation more clearly than I do, and your judgment of the outcome of the struggle is probably sounder than mine. We who live here are so shut in by the details of the movement that we cannot see its real direction; we are too near to get a broad view of what is happening."

It is quite certain that if one is to understand what is going on in the Far East to-day he must have both knowledge and vision; he must know the facts, but he must also use the imagination in interpreting them. Looked at close at hand and seen in detail day by day the East seems full of disorder and swept by conflicting currents; but these disturbances are incidental to the awakening of its dormant energies; they are not the signs of approaching anarchy, but of reorganization, of liberation of unused powers.

There are strongly marked currents moving through this restless sea of human life that was long quiescent; there are powerful general tendencies behind the disorder; and there is also a spiritual force which has immense potentiality, and in the East of to-day it is the potential which is the dominant factor. No man of vision can see the East of to-day without seeing the East of to-morrow. The Old East has become the Young East, with possibilities of development as rich and as varied as those of the farthest West; and in youth it is not what has been attained that holds the interest, but what lies within reach of the unspent ardor, the unused vitality. The West is thinking and talking about the Old East, and there is no longer an Old East; there is a New East, not yet fully aware of its power, but rapidly coming to a knowledge of its resources for good and evil.

In China there may be a period of disorder; there may even be another revolution; it may be that an era of anarchy will set in. No man can foresee the events of the near future; but of the outcome no one who knows the resources of the country or the fundamental qualities of the Chinese character can be in doubt. A people cannot change its social habits and political institutions over night, so to speak, without disturbance of long-established values, outbreaks of distrust, and panics; but a capable people, having slowly or suddenly become aware of powers which it has not used, will certainly learn how to use them, no matter how painful the education may be. Wise friends are not misled by the turbulence of the "storm and stress" period in the lives of nations any more than wise parents are heartbroken by that ebullition of wild spirits which is often the characteristic of youth when it begins to feel the powerful impulses of manhood but has not yet learned its self-control.

The sooner the West recognizes that a new day has dawned in the East the brighter will be the prospects of peace in the twentieth century. The West has greatly aided the East during the period when it needed guardianship; and there are Oriental countries which still need the practical guidance of the West; but the age of exploitation has passed away never to return. The West is not only largely ignorant of the East, but betrays great

[1] The student who wishes to make a careful study of this question, including the historical meanings of the words Catholic and Protestant, and the nature and development of the doctrinal differences between the Catholic and the Protestant bodies and beliefs, will find material for such study in "Catholic Principles and the Change of Name," by the Rev. Randolph H. McKim, D.D., of Washington, D. C. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.

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lack of imagination in dealing with it. From St. Petersburg to Sacramento the truth must be driven home that there is a new East to be dealt with on a basis of equality. To ignore this new force and to attempt to deal with the East as so much outlying territory to be divided by arrangement between more thoroughly organized nations, or to treat its peoples as if they were unable to understand their rights or to protect themselves, will mean that the twentieth century will be a breeding-ground of deadly hatreds, of lasting and dangerous animosities. It will mean not only defiance of those Christian standards of action to which the West professes to conform its actions, but a blindness of sight, a stupidity of policy, which will invite great calamities.

The most dramatic, possibly the most important, fact of this century is likely to be the coming together of the East and the West. Whether that coming together shall be a friendly union or a collision will be decided in the next few years. In its new birth in vitality, in achievement, in freedom, shall the East have the aid of the West, or shall it be hampered by the West? shall the West play the part of a far-sighted friend or shall it be a mere trader, a strong man taking advantage of a weaker man to lay tribute on his passing weakness, to divide his possessions while he is still unable to defend them? Americans have no greater international asset to-day than the confidence and friendship of Japan and China; the generous and disinterested policy which has governed our relations with a country already powerful, and a country on the way to power, has been a noble expression of the American spirit of justice and helpfulness. The preservation of that policy is the duty of all Americans to whom the honor of the country is dear, and who regard its privileges and its power as a trust for the benefit of humanity.

THE WORLD'S FINANCIAL DEPRESSION

A POLL OF THE PRESS

THE money market is "tight." This, says the Cedar Rapids (Iowa) "Gazette," is due, first of all, to the Balkan War. It explains why by saying that Europe has more money than has any other continent, and that it is to Europe that promoters must look for a considerable portion of the funds used for development purposes. The "Gazette" proceeds thus: "A war sends billions of real money into hiding. The Balkan sent hundreds of billions [*sic*] into seclusion, and so long as there is a possibility of a continuation of the conflict or any likelihood of other wars, the money will stay in hiding. War is an expensive thing, and when there is a conflict between nations millions of dollars that would be invested in business enterprises must be wasted. It takes the world no little time to recoup the financial losses entailed by a war."

The London "Statist" agrees to this, and adds that "in the last resort it rests with the investing public to stop all wars and even to prevent unpopular wars."

Commenting on this, the New York "Bankers' Magazine" says that British investors themselves have had some recent experiences teaching them that investments in war loans are not profitable. "The expenses incurred in the South African War added huge sums to the public debt of Great Britain, seriously depressed the price of the Government securities, and caused no little loss to those who bought them. The British banks have been compelled in recent years to write off very considerable sums on this account." The "Bankers' Magazine" admits that a nation may, for its own preservation, have to lay aside all considerations of profit and to go to war to protect its honor and its life at whatever cost or sacrifice. "But," it adds, "if investors, not through sentiment but solely because of business considerations, decline to put their money in war loans except at exorbitant rates, it may at least prove an added hindrance to war and tend toward preserving the peace."

In a recent issue of the New York "Times" M. Yves Guyot, the eminent French statesman and economist, gave the details of military expenditures for the six great powers of Europe which compose the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente. The total runs up to two billion dollars a year. To this, he

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says, must be added the loss of production by the 2,500,000 young men in the prime of life and vigor withdrawn from industry for service in the armies and navies. Estimating the average value of the productive power of these young men at the moderate rate of $400 annually, M. Guyot estimates the total cost of the fighting forces of Europe at three billions of dollars.

What is the present situation? All the Balkan States, says the Springfield "Republican," nearly all the Great Powers, and of course bankrupt Turkey, are eager to borrow in the aggregate vast sums at the earliest opportunity. "In addition to these demands the field of borrowing has been widely extended of late by the inclusion of China and India, so that the demands upon capital are probably greater than ever before." The present crisis would therefore seem to be one of lack of capital, not of currency.

Whether or not the hoarding of cash in Europe on account of war has been exaggerated, says the New York "Sun," "it is today quite obvious that the Balkan War and all its corollaries were only an accident which proved that the world, especially the Old World, had been so financing its economic progress of late years as to leave no margin for accident." The "Sun" explains that when capital is on a strong foundation the accident of war does not greatly shake it, and in support of this view says that our war with Spain, the British war with the Boers, Russia's war with Japan (very few newspapers mention the present crisis with Japan as having to do with the situation), and all the war clouds, have not developed any such situation as has had to be dealt with since the end of 1912.

The London "Economist" summarizes the situation by saying that the world is "overloaded and overarmed."

We have considered the overarming. As to the overloading the New York "Sun" chronicles:

> In 1911 the first danger signals began to be displayed by securities, and in that year and 1912 the great London market was conspicuously characterized by congestions of new promotions, which were only slowly and with increasing difficulty overcome. Practically all countries continued, nevertheless, to press vast borrowing demands on capital and credit, and a sure sign of diminishing capital supplies and overtaxed credit was provided by ever-growing recourse to European funds for the accommodation of short-term note issues.
>
> The tale of the present year made the notice of danger unmistakable. As early as January a Credit Foncier loan of $100,000,000 in Paris was only two and one-half times subscribed, although the rate of interest was 3½ per cent, whereas a 3 per cent loan had been subscribed nineteen times over in January, 1912. In March a $100,000,000 offering of Prussian treasury 4 per cent notes failed of complete subscription in Berlin, and at the same time $37,500,000 of Imperial and Prussian Government bonds were barely sold. Meanwhile the indigestible mass of securities underwritten abroad was steadily augmented by fast-following public and private undertakings, and the convincing proof of practical exhaustion of the European capital market was given when $55,000,000 of Brazil Government 5 per cent bonds offered under Rothschild auspices received less than a 10 per cent subscription.

In this connection the Philadelphia "Record" cites the following facts with regard to Europe:

> France has been projecting a loan of $200,000,000. Fifteen bond issues of national and colonial governments and corporations have been left in the greater part upon the hands of the underwriters in London, who have been obliged to borrow money to carry them. . . . The financial authorities are coming to the conclusion that the demand for money far exceeds the world's supplies. The world is not saving money fast enough to meet the requirements of governments and corporations.

Most of the newspapers agree that if the main causes of the financial stringency are world-wide, a few may be sought for in this country. The Philadelphia "Record" says:

> All our cities and States are borrowing for buildings and canals and roads and every conceivable form of expenditure. The State of New York is now raising $27,000,000 on short-time notes, because for the moment its bonds are unsalable, though they are among the most desirable of all investments. In fifteen years New York City has added $913,000,000 to its bonded debt, and its annual budget has very much more than doubled. In seven years the per capita debt of this city, whose debt is relatively moderate, has increased from $37.03 to $55.56; that of Pittsburgh from $56.24 to $81.33; that of Baltimore from $40.34 to $71.64; and that of Cincinnati from $86.48 to $140. A number of State and city bond issues during the past few months have failed or have been carried through only by increasing the rate of interest.

In the next place, there is the recent St. Louis and San Francisco railway receivership. This, indeed, was not without influence on foreign exchanges, especially that of Paris. The first impulse of Frenchmen, says the Paris "Temps," was to condemn without distinction all American affairs. "But," the paper continues, "we must not generalize from one unfortunate case that no American

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security shall henceforth enter the French portfolio." The least compensation which can be offered to French investors is security, and the recent St. Louis and San Francisco incident "shows the lightness with which this security is regarded." It is surprising, the "Temps" adds, that the French financial institutions which issued this security should have been content with a mere affirmation by the company's directors and bankers that it was a good security. "No independent verification of statements was made. Let this be a lesson for the future. Let our banks have direct representatives in America to examine securities offered even by the best houses in New York."

Though the New Orleans "Picayune" is a well-known Democratic organ, it does not hesitate to ascribe other causes of the financial slump to the Democratic Administration at Washington. It says that "the most recent and active causes of the slump in values have been, first, the "Frisco" receivership; secondly, the activity of the Federal Administration in endeavoring to reopen the Tobacco Trust and Standard Oil cases, and the threat of new prosecutions and penalties, which have also been a powerful contributing factor in the situation; and, thirdly, the undermining of confidence by radical tariff revisions and the apprehension generally felt in all business circles that the Washington Administration is bent upon enacting radical and dangerous legislation. The disposition of the Federal Administration to regulate everything and to hamper corporate initiative and enterprise has caused anxiety and nervousness, and unless the authorities at Washington take warning from what has already occurred even greater damage may yet be done."

Another Southern Democratic organ, the Nashville "Democrat," pooh-poohs this as follows:

> Without stopping to remember that for every seller there must be a buyer, that for every weak-kneed speculator or investor there is one who is confident, and that for every shareholder whom circumstances may force to realize ready cash there is another anxious to secure the goods in exchange for the same, those men who never look below the surface began wagging their heads and declaring that they felt all the time that a Democratic administration would precipitate a panic in the country. Others were equally confident that the tinkering with the tariff had destroyed the confidence of manufacturers in the future. . . . One feels that the beneficiaries of a robber tariff and the alarmists who have little else to engage their energies have taken advantage of a tempest in a teapot to create the impression that an elemental war is raging.

"We have no idea of denying that public policies may have had some hand in the financial unsettlement," comments the New York "Evening Post." "Anything that makes the investor hesitate will tend to disturb the markets." The "Post" adds:

> Even of the tariff it must be said in fairness that any extensive change in schedules, whether upward or downward, interferes inevitably with some of the normal plans of the business world for a season's trade, and therefore might affect the market. It is the simple fact of impending change and intervening uncertainty which causes hesitation. But these are wholly temporary influences; they could not of themselves explain the recent market; and, as a matter of fact, they were not needed for explanation.

A Republican paper of the progressive type, the Topeka "Capital," defends the Administration. When Wall Street speculators complain that the Government is persecuting legitimate business again and bringing on one of Wall Street's periodical panics, sensible people are inclined to smile, says the "Capital." "It is the apparent intention of the Government to reach a settlement of some of the pressing questions that the Government has been facing, and with as little delay as necessary. Also it is the Government's intention to carry out its public pledges."

Referring to the fact that stocks may decline further, the "Capital" remarks:

> This need not worry the owner of such securities, while it causes disaster to the margin trader who is on the wrong side. Unfortunately 98 transactions on the Stock Exchange out of every 100 are of the latter character, of margin buying and selling, instead of actual purchase and sale for investment, and hence the excited flip-flops of Wall Street when margins are gradually or suddenly wiped out, even though dividends are in no wise affected. The country in late years has come to regard the palpitations of the stock market less seriously than in the past. If Wall Street intends to have a stock market panic at all, President Wilson will be lucky to see it occur early in his term.

In view of all the circumstances, the Springfield "Republican" concludes that it is a poor time to borrow. It is encouraging to note, it says, a case like that of the people of Rhode Island, who have voted down a $2,000,000 bond issue for road improvement. "Improvements that can wait should wait. In any event, it appears they will have to wait. In seeking for first causes one may find much obscurity, but the facts are what they are. Just now it is a poor time to borrow."

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THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG

JULY 1–3, 1863

BY ELSIE SINGMASTER

THE battle of Gettysburg was the most important battle of the Civil War. The contest had been thus far without decisive result. Intervention and acknowledgment of the independence of the Confederacy by foreign powers was imminent. In the North dissatisfaction reigned, enthusiasm had begun to cool. The Northern army was about to lose fifteen thousand men by the expiration of their term of service, and there was no prospect of the re-enlistment of so many.

The battle of Gettysburg was the only battle of the war fought on Northern soil. Here the enemy was at hand; Harrisburg, a great railway center and depot of supplies, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Washington, lay exposed to the danger of capture.

There were engaged at Gettysburg about eighty thousand men on the Union side and about eighty thousand on the Confederate side. Of this number the Union loss was about twenty-three thousand in killed, wounded, and missing; the Confederate about twenty thousand—an appallingly large proportion. All the loyal Union States except Kentucky and Missouri were represented. Every Confederate State had soldiers upon the field.

The town of Gettysburg was in no way remarkable before the battle. It was a little village, seven miles from the Maryland border and about forty-five miles from Harrisburg. It was founded in 1780, and though it was the county seat, it numbered in 1863 only three thousand inhabitants. Its most famous citizen was Thaddeus Stevens. Gettysburg has two educational institutions, the Lutheran Theological Seminary, giving its name to the ridge west of the town, and Pennsylvania College, also an institution of the Lutheran Church, in the town itself. The only citizen to be killed in the battle was a woman, Miss Jennie Wade, who was struck by a stray shot, probably from the Union lines. Old John Burns seized his squirrel gun and fought with the Union troops. He was wounded three times and left on the field for dead, but recovered and lived to be a source of great interest and admiration.

The village lay apart from the main lines of railway travel, and except for the pranks of the students and the sessions of court it knew little excitement. Its topographical features seem to have prepared it, however, to be the arena for one of the greatest battles of history.

Gettysburg is the meeting-place of eight roads, several of which are good pikes. Therefore troops could be moved about swiftly and could be easily concentrated. The two adjacent ridges offered fine positions to contending armies. Seminary Ridge to the west, occupied first by the Union and afterwards by the Confederate troops, has no sharp elevations. Cemetery Ridge to the east, occupied by the Union troops on the second and third days of the battle, is terminated on the north by Cemetery Hill and Culp's Hill and on the south by Big Round Top and Little Round Top. There are no great streams; the masses of rock and stretches of woodland are thick enough to protect but not to interfere with the movement of troops. Cemetery Ridge is higher than Seminary Ridge, and is therefore admirably suited to troops on the defensive, a fact which helped materially to give the Union forces the victory. The village itself occupies about the center of the field, which, exclusive of the cavalry field to the east, covers an area of about twenty-five square miles.

The Union troops advanced, speaking generally, from the south by way of the Baltimore, Taneytown, and Emmittsburg roads. The Confederate troops advanced, speaking generally also, from the north, by way of the York, Chambersburg, Mummasburg, Carlisle, and York roads. At the beginning of June, after its defeat at Chancellorsville, the Army of the Potomac under General Hooker lay north of the Rappahannock River in Virginia. The Confederate Army of Virginia, under General Lee, began meanwhile to move toward the north. The Union army started in pursuit, and, capturing General Stuart's official papers, discovered General Lee's orders for a march into Pennsylvania. Thereupon began the great parallel procession, the two armies meeting in skir-

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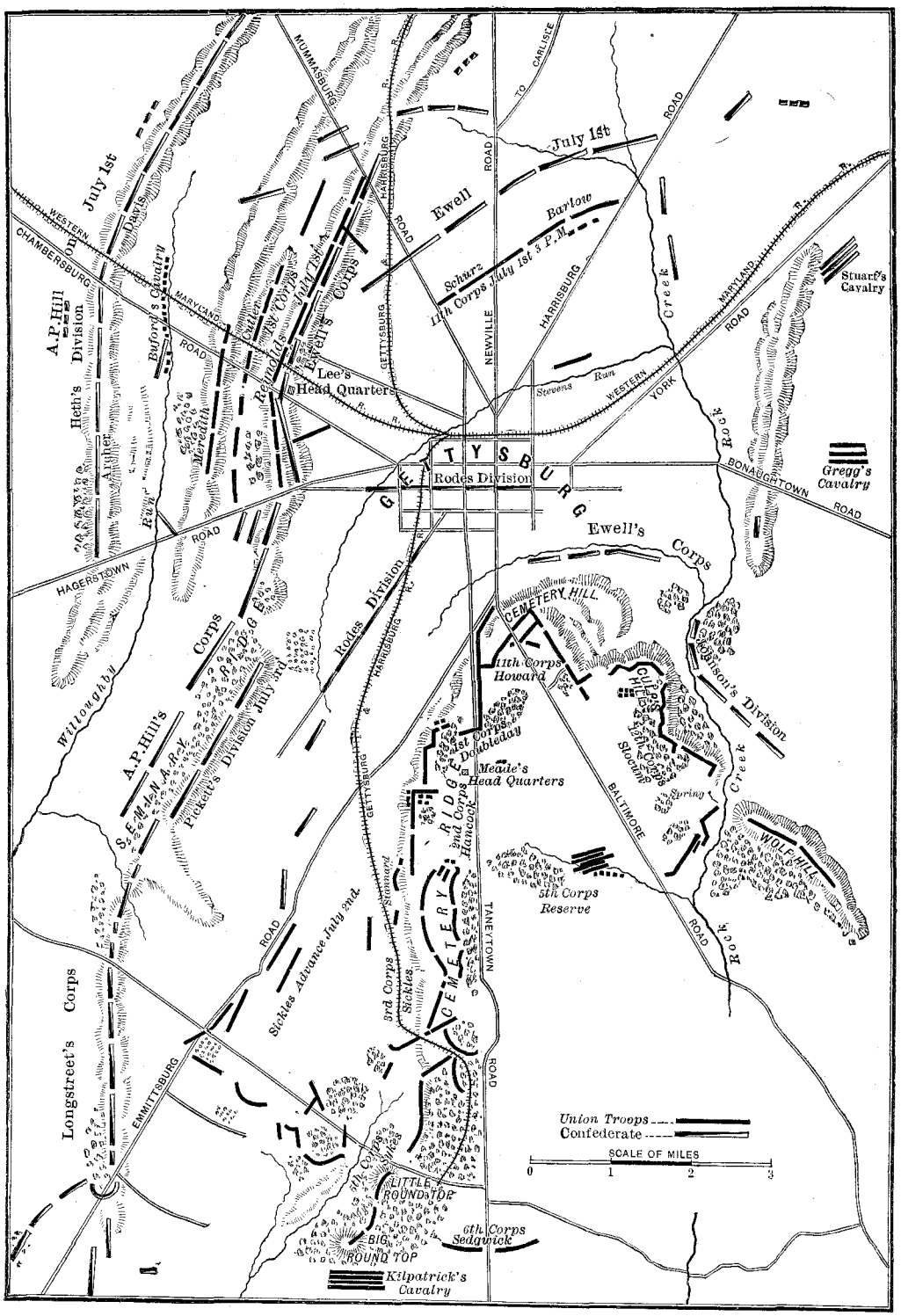

THE BATTLEFIELD OF GETTYSBURG

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mishes on the way, General Lee being unaware, however, that the Union army was advancing in mass.

The Confederate army crossed the Potomac and moved up the Cumberland Valley to Chambersburg, Carlisle, and Cashtown. Early's division marched on June 26 from Cashtown to York, part of the command going through Gettysburg to seek supplies. Now suddenly General Lee was amazed to discover that the Union troops were close at hand. Immediately lying at Cashtown, he concentrated his army.

The Union army, meanwhile, had crossed the Potomac at Frederick. There General Hooker resigned and General Meade took his place, and the army continued to move north, east of South Mountain. General Meade proposed to give battle on the heights of Pipe Creek, fifteen miles south of Gettysburg. But on the night of the 29th of June, General Buford of the cavalry saw the lights of the Confederate camp-fires between Monterey and Fairfield, and was at once ordered to Gettysburg.

The Army of the Potomac was well clothed, well fed, magnificently disciplined, and thoroughly reliable. It had been relieved of a leader of whose judgment it was not certain, and had been put under one for whom it had great respect. The Confederate army was no less ready for battle. It was not quite as well cared for as the Northern army, but it had the cheering recollection of many victories and a leader whom it adored.

The Army of the Potomac was divided into seven corps—the First, under General Reynolds and afterwards under General Doubleday; the Second, under General Hancock and afterwards under General Gibbon; the Third, under General Sickles; the Fifth, under General Sykes; the Sixth, under General Sedgwick; the Eleventh, under General Howard; the Twelfth, under General Slocum. The three cavalry divisions under the direction of General Pleasonton were commanded severally by Buford, Gregg, and Kilpatrick.

In the Confederate army there were only three corps, each one of which was much larger than a Union corps. They were under the command of Generals Longstreet, Ewell, and A. P. Hill. The Confederate cavalry was under the command of General J. E. B. Stuart.

Immediately upon his arrival at Gettysburg General Buford established his camp upon a little ridge sloping west from Seminary Ridge to Willoughby Run, and had the ground between Willoughby Run and Marsh Creek, three miles farther to the west, thoroughly patrolled. Early on the morning of Wednesday, July 1, his pickets saw the advance of the enemy, General Heth's division of the Third Confederate Corps, advancing along the Chambersburg pike. One picket galloped back with the news; the other, from the shelter of the bridge, fired the first shot of the battle, three miles to the west of Gettysburg.

At once the Confederates, fearing a large force, proceeded more cautiously. The Union cavalry squadrons, coming promptly to the relief of their comrades, so harassed the advancing troops that they were two hours in traversing the three miles to Willoughby Run. Until a quarter of ten General Buford directed his small host in their effort to stay the approach of the foe, while in the cupola of the Seminary his lookouts gazed eagerly towards the south, watching for reinforcements.

Presently General Buford was summoned to observe a large body of Union troops advancing along the Emmittsburg road. In a few minutes General Reynolds himself arrived, and directed and encouraged the troops.

Cutler's brigade of Union infantry was now placed across the Chambersburg pike, and the exhausted cavalry fell to the rear. Meredith's Iron Brigade took possession of the woodland. For two hours the Union troops not only held their own against a superior number, but succeeded in driving back the Confederates. The Confederate Generals Archer and Davis lost more than half their effective force, and General Archer was finally captured with all his men.

During the engagement in the woodland, General Reynolds was shot as he was riding among his troops. General Reynolds was one of the best-loved soldiers of the Union army. A Pennsylvanian by birth, a graduate of West Point, he had seen distinguished service in the Mexican War. At the time of the battle he was forty-three years old, with a prospect of great fame before him. He was at once succeeded by General Doubleday.

In spite of its early victories and its heroic struggles, it became more and more evident as noon approached that Cutler's brigade would have to fall back and that the Union troops were being worsted.

Between ten and eleven o'clock General Howard had arrived in the town and had heard the news of Reynolds's death. Seeing

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the strategic importance of Culp's Hill, he gave orders that it be fortified. He then notified General Meade that Reynolds had been killed and begged that the Twelfth Corps be forwarded. He sent two divisions of his own corps under Generals Shimmelpfennig and Barlow to reinforce the Union right, upon which General Ewell's artillery had opened fire. General Barlow was severely wounded; both the Eleventh Corps and the gallant First Corps were compelled to retire to Cemetery Hill.

There was great confusion as the troops passed through the town. General Shimmelpfennig was captured, and could not regain his command for three days; General Barlow lay within the Confederate lines, and hundreds of prisoners were captured. By half-past four the Union troops were fortifying their new position on Cemetery Ridge.

General Lee arrived upon the field in time to see the end of the first day's battle and to rejoice with the Confederate troops in their success. He declared that, contrary to his usual custom of fighting upon the defensive, he would the next day attack the Union forces. All the bright moonlit night his line was forming along Seminary Ridge. General Longstreet was placed on the extreme right; General Ewell kept his position on the extreme left; between them was placed General A. P. Hill. General Pickett with his division of Longstreet's Corps was still far back in South Mountain guarding the wagon trains.

When General Meade heard at his headquarters in Taneytown the news of Reynolds's death, he ordered General Hancock to proceed to Gettysburg. At once taking precedence of General Howard, he rode up and down the line directing the troops. Having helped to restore order, and having consulted with the Generals present, he rode back to Taneytown, to discover that General Meade had already determined to proceed to Gettysburg.

The bright moonlight aided not only the soldiers upon the field who were throwing up defenses, but illumined the path of thousands of their comrades, hurrying toward them over the rough roads. The troops met many stragglers who reported the events of the day, and presently a mounted guard accompanying the body of General Reynolds to Baltimore.

At one o'clock in the morning General Meade arrived upon the field. The Union troops were disposed as follows: The Eleventh Corps occupied Cemetery Hill; to its left was the First Corps. The Twelfth Corps was sent to Culp's Hill, the Second Corps was placed along Cemetery Ridge. The Third Corps extended the line of the Second. The Fifth Corps was placed in reserve near the Rock Creek crossing of the Baltimore turnpike, until six P.M., when the Sixth Corps arrived. Then the Fifth Corps was moved to the extreme left.

Now, directly, the two armies faced each other. Each was somewhat sheltered by woodland, but between them the country was open. The Union army lay, as has been said, on slightly higher ground than the Confederate. Each army was strong, determined, confident.

The second day of the battle dawned clear and bright. It was General Lee's plan to attack the whole line at once. Longstreet was to begin with his fresh columns and Hill and Ewell were to follow upon hearing his guns. But the attack was not begun until late in the afternoon, when valuable time had been lost by the Confederates and gained by the Federals.

At three o'clock the battle opened. Lee believed that if General Sickles's Third Corps could be driven from its position near a little peach orchard, he could reach the crest beyond. After a severe struggle and with great loss Longstreet accomplished his purpose; the Third Union Corps was in imminent danger of annihilation. With it suffered the first division of the Second Corps which was sent to its aid.

While this engagement was in progress General Warren observed that Little Round Top was about to be captured, and here at once the troops of the Fifth Corps took their position. They succeeded in driving back the oncoming Confederates, but with tremendous loss.

To the far right of the Union line there was a third contest. The Twelfth Corps, holding Culp's Hill, was assaulted by General Ewell. In a fearful conflict the Louisiana Tigers were so beaten that of seventeen hundred only three hundred got back to the village where their line had formed. As Union reinforcements arrived, General Johnson, of the Confederate army, moved back of the hill, where he camped for the night. Here the lines were so close together that the opposing forces drank from the same spring.

Thus closed the second day of battle, with

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victory for the Union troops. General Lee had turned back the line of the Third Corps, but he had failed to capture the Round Tops or to pierce the Union center, and his losses were heavy.

Early on the morning of the 3d of July the Twelfth Corps drove the Confederates from the Union works on Culp's Hill. As early as possible the Union lines were reformed. Riding up and down the line, General Meade saw for himself that his army was prepared for the assault which he anticipated.

General Lee planned to attack the left center of the Union line. General Pickett's fresh troops had arrived; they were to be reinforced by other infantry troops and by General Stuart's cavalry. Unfortunately for General Lee's plans, General Stuart was intercepted by the Union cavalry and his approach cut off in a brilliant engagement.

The Confederate guns, one hundred and thirty-eight in number, were made ready. Meade's position was such that he could place only seventy guns in line, but he had a large artillery reserve.

At one o'clock a single cannon from the Confederate line opened the fight. It was echoed by a vast roar from its fellows and replied to by an equal blast from its foes. For an hour and a half the fierce duel continued. Then General Hunt, of the Union forces, ordered the Union fire to cease so that the guns might cool and the ammunition be saved for the charge of the Confederate infantry which was sure to follow.

Across the wide field on the Confederate line, Pickett with his troops and his reinforcements waited. The Union guns were now silent, according to General Hunt's command. Certain that the Union ammunition had failed, General Lee, urged by General Pickett, gave the order to advance, and, mounting his horse, General Pickett rode confidently to the head of his troops. In the center of the Union line stood a rounded clump of trees; toward this the Confederate troops aimed their course; they were five thousand men supported by nine thousand, the best and bravest soldiers of the South.

Then, suddenly, an amazing sound startled their ears. The Union guns were only temporarily silenced; they now thundered forth once more. But still, in the face of solid shot, shell, and canister, the Confederates advanced. They lost their magnificent formation, but still they moved on. Stannard with his Vermont brigade advanced to meet them, assailing them with new volleys. At a little stone wall, forming a sharp angle, they pierced for an instant the Union line, but were driven back, slain, captured, their colors taken, their cause lost. The tide of battle had turned; the tide of war had begun to ebb.

The joy in the Union army was indescribable. Shouting their triumph, they forgot the long marches, the privations, the miseries; they even forgot their comrades lying all about them in terrible positions of agony. The battle of Gettysburg was won.

The conquered could not stay to see their dead buried or to give their wounded the succor which might save their lives. Out the Hagerstown road in the darkness and pouring rain of a terrific storm, toward distant Monterey Gap, disheartened, fearful of attack, they made their weary way.

At once the task of caring for the wounded left on the field was begun. The churches, the public buildings, the college buildings, the private houses of the village became hospitals where army nurses, citizens of Gettysburg, and scores of charitable persons from other places dressed wounds, assisted in amputations, and helped to control delirium.

At once, also, the sad task of burying the dead was begun. The bodies were laid, not in separate graves, but in great trenches, which could sometimes be only loosely covered. In the fall and winter the bodies were transferred to single graves in the National Cemetery, a tract of about seventeen acres, dedicated by the great speech of Abraham Lincoln. Here the National Monument, with its encircling rows of unknown dead, was erected.

Before the war was over plans were made for the preservation and the marking of the whole vast battlefield. Fine avenues have been constructed, great observation towers have been built, hundreds of markers and monuments have been placed. No effort has been spared to maintain the original topographical features of the field. The open spaces have been kept open, thinning groves have been replanted, old trees showing the effect of the iron hail have been preserved. The returning soldier may be able to recall each sound and sight of the conflict as he finds his way back to his old position, but he will carry away with him a more valuable impression of desolation turned to beauty, of strife become peace. All honor to him who here on this blood-stained tract fought our battle for us!

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HENRY WARD BEECHER AS AN ORATOR

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

HENRY WARD BEECHER was born on the 24th of June, 1813. This year, therefore, and especially this month, his friends are making an occasion for special affectionate tributes to his memory. The object of this article, however, is not to eulogize him, but to give, especially to the younger readers of The Outlook, some analysis of his character, and so some interpretation of the elements which enter into true oratory. It is sometimes said that the days of oratory are passed. I do not believe that this is true. The time will never come when a great personality, trained in the art of self-expression, will be unable to affect vitally the lives of auditors, and so the life of the community.

It is my sober judgment that Mr. Beecher was quite the greatest orator I ever heard, and one of the greatest orators the world has ever known. In particular qualities he was surpassed by others. Gladstone was more persuasive, Gough was more dramatic, Wendell Phillips was more keen, George William Curtis was more finished, Daniel Webster was more weighty; but no man in my time, and perhaps no man in any time, combined in a more remarkable degree all the qualities which go to make up true oratory.

Oratory is partly physical. An invalid may be an orator, but he is always at a disadvantage. Henry Ward Beecher had a magnificent physique. Three qualities which go to make efficient health he possessed in a superlative degree: muscles of steel, good digestion furnishing rich blood-currents, and a nervous organization of apparently exhaustless vitality. I once asked him to write for The Christian Union an article on "How to Keep Well." "There are only three rules," he replied. "Eat well, sleep well, and laugh well." All three rules he observed spontaneously and without difficulty. And I may add that, while nature had given him health, he observed carefully and scrupulously the conditions necessary to preserve and to develop it.

Oratory depends partly upon the voice. It is the organ through which the soul expresses itself in speech. A great soul may overcome the handicap of a thin, feeble, piping voice, or a harsh, nasal, or guttural voice, but such a voice is always a handicap. Mr. Beecher's voice, carefully trained in his early youth, was a splendid organ for varied expression. It ran the whole gamut of rich and strong music, from the deep diapason to the flute. I heard him once, in preaching a sermon on the love of God as illustrated by the life of Christ, interrupt himself with the question, "Did not Christ with wrathful indignation denounce the Pharisees?" "That depends," he replied, "on how you read the record." Then he took up his New Testament and read, with a voice surcharged with wrath, "Woe unto you, scribes and Pharisees, hypocrites, how can you escape the *damnation of hell?*" and then, with only pause long enough to mark the transition of feeling, he read the same passage in a voice tender and tremulous, with pathos, expressing by the tone of the voice a change of emotion which here I venture to express by a change in phraseology and italics: "Alas for you, scribes and Pharisees, hypocrites, how *can* you escape the damnation of hell?" Then he laid down his New Testament and went on with his sermon. The effect, startling and profound, could have been produced only by a voice equally remarkable for its natural quality and its long training.

In the "Life of Mr. Beecher" by his son and son-in-law he describes this training. "I had," he says, "from childhood a thickness of speech arising from a large palate, so that when a boy I used to be laughed at for talking as if I had pudding in my mouth. When I went to Amherst I was fortunate in passing into the hands of John Lovell, a teacher of elocution, and a better teacher for my purpose I cannot conceive. His system consisted in drill, or the thorough practice of inflections by the voice, of gesture, posture, and articulation. Sometimes I was a whole hour practicing my voice on a word—like 'justice.' . . . Now I never know what movements I shall make. My gestures are natural, because this drill made them natural to me. The only method of acquiring an effective education is by practice, of not less than an hour a day, until the student has his voice and himself thoroughly subdued and trained to right expression." I wish that every theological seminary furnished at least an optional course in voice-building and elocution, with time enough, taken if necessary from Hebrew or from Mediæval Theology,

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to enable the student to acquire a power of spontaneous expression, now too often lacking in the ministrations of the pulpit.

The orator must have a mastery of language as well as a mastery of voice, for the English language, no less than the voice, is the instrument which he must use for the expression of his life, if with his life he would impress the lives of others. In his later years Mr. Beecher was an extemporaneous speaker, using only brief notes, and often no notes at all. But in his early ministry he was often a careful, painstaking writer, and a careful, painstaking student of the great masters in English literature. He read not only for thought, but also for style. With the stylistic methods of Ruskin, Carlyle, Matthew Arnold, John Milton in his prose, and other classical writers, he was familiar. He gave me once an interesting comparison of Barrow and South and their use of English, of which I wish I had made notes. His sermons to young men, delivered when he was settled in Indianapolis, were carefully written, and although they are too dramatic and too highly colored for modern taste, they were admirably adapted to the time and place in which they were delivered. In general, the hearer noticed not the beauty or power of expression, so absorbed was he in the thought conveyed; and often the sermon was marred by infelicities of expression which strike the reader of the printed page, though they produced little or no impression upon the hearer when they were uttered. Sometimes these apparent infelicities of expression were even made to add effectiveness to the spoken address, by the intonation thrown into them by a highly trained voice.

But there are some of Mr. Beecher's printed sermons which demonstrate in him a capacity for perfection of finish in expression not surpassed by any orator. On the death of a young woman of his congregation, the daughter of one of his dearest friends, and to him almost as a daughter of his own, he preached a sermon on the burial of Jesus in the sepulcher in the garden, with Mary Magdalene and the other Mary sitting over against the sepulcher. The whole of this sermon is a poem in prose. From it I extract a single paragraph, despite the fact that by taking it from its setting I seriously impair its beauty:

> A plow is coming from the far end of a long field, and a daisy stands nodding and full of dew-dimples. That furrow is sure to strike the daisy. It casts its shadow as gayly, and exhales its gentle breath as freely, and stands as simple and radiant and expectant as ever; and yet that crushing furrow, which is turning and turning others in its course, is drawing near, and in a moment it whirls the heedless flower with sudden reversal under the sod!

The story of Demosthenes, possibly apocryphal, is familiar. Asked the secret of oratory, he is said to have replied: "Three conditions. The first is action, the second is action, and the third is action." The great orator makes not only his voice but his whole body an instrument of expression. He may do this in various ways. The gracefulness of their gestures added persuasive and insinuating grace to the oratory of George William Curtis and Mr. Gladstone. The sledge-hammer gestures of Daniel Webster doubtless partly explained the saying of the New Hampshire farmer, "Every word weighed a ton;" and they were the more effective because they were not frequent. The gestures of Wendell Phillips were rapier-like thrusts which accompanied the rapier-like thrusts of his rhetoric. He gestured like a fencer, and thrust to kill. John B. Gough was an actor, and impersonated in voice and gesture every character in every story he told, and he was a wonderful story-teller. Mr. Beecher's action combined that of Daniel Webster and John B. Gough. To the reader this statement may present an impossible incongruity, but it did not present an impossible incongruity to the auditors of Mr. Beecher. Sometimes his gestures simply lent the force of a great, strong, muscular character to an assertion or a conclusion. Oftener his gestures were illustrative. His vivid and active imagination impelled him to assume whatever character he was portraying. This he did in private conversation no less than in public discourse. It is sometimes said that he would have made a great actor. I think this is a mistake. There is nothing in his oratory and there is nothing in his biography to indicate that he had ever made a study of the mimetic art. I do not recall that he had the art or skill in the use of dialect such as that of John B. Gough. His dramatic imagination simply served to make vivid as well as clear his meaning. I doubt whether he ever acted a part consciously to entrance an audience. His action was like that of a little boy who enacts his story in order to tell it.

A fine physique, a well-trained voice, skillful rhetoric, dramatic action, will not suffice to make a great orator. They may entrance

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but they will not convince an audience. The true orator must be a real thinker, and he must think clearly and practically if he would really produce permanent effects. Wendell Phillips was one of the greatest orators I have ever heard. I think I should put him second only to Henry Ward Beecher. I heard him deliver an address in Watertown, Massachusetts, directly after the brutal assault of Preston Brooks on Charles Sumner. The reader of to-day cannot easily conceive how deeply stirred was the State of Massachusetts by that crime, nor conceive how profoundly stirred was the Massachusetts audience by the restrained eloquence of Massachusetts' greatest orator, the Mark Antony of his time. But his speech was wholly ineffective, because when we came away from his indictment of the slave power and thought over his address we discovered that the only remedy which he proposed was that Massachusetts should call home her Senators and Representatives and secede from the Union—a remedy which was instantly rejected by our sober second thought.

Mr. Beecher was a profound thinker. By that I mean he thought things through, and rarely if ever spoke on any topic unless he had first thoroughly pondered it. But if he was not superficial, neither was he obscure or subtle or scholastic. He had *common* sense; that is, the point of view of the common people. He understood his fellow-men, and if he did not agree with them—and he often did not—he saw the problems as they saw them and so approached the problems in intellectual sympathy with them. This common sense prevented him from being either an agitator or a doctrinaire. He has been often called an abolitionist, but he was not an abolitionist. The doctrine of the abolitionist was defined by William Lloyd Garrison as "the duty of immediate and unconditional emancipation." Mr. Beecher did not believe in the duty of immediate and unconditional emancipation. He saw that it was both politically and morally impracticable. He saw that in many cases it would have been a cowardly evasion of duty; that the duty of the slaveholder was not to throw his slaves unprepared for self-support upon a community unwilling to give them a chance for self-support, but to stay with them and care for them in slavery until slavery, by lawful and peaceable methods, could be abolished. He held and urged upon the community the doctrine of William H. Seward, Samuel P. Chase, and Abraham Lincoln; the duty of prohibiting the further extension of slavery, and trusting to natural processes for its ultimate peaceful extinction.

So, after the Civil War was over, he refused to follow the doctrinaires in their endeavor to establish in the South, without any previous preparation, State governments founded on universal suffrage. Though he believed in universal suffrage as an ultimate fact, he saw clearly that the first duty of the Union was to promote good feeling between the North and the South and between the blacks and the whites in the South. He refused, therefore, to follow such men as Stevens in his radical reconstruction policy. "The Radicals," he once said to me, "are trying to drive the wedge into the log butt-end foremost, and they will only split their beetle." This common sense kept him in touch with the common people, and, always seeking to lead them to a practical result, gave to his orations a real and permanent efficiency. Perhaps no episode in his career more strikingly illustrates this characteristic of his ministry than his orations in England, which did so much to revolutionize the public sentiment of that country and convert hostility into friendship for the National cause.

But thought, however profound and however practical and however efficacious its instrument, does not make a great orator unless it is surcharged with emotion. Thought guides, emotion moves; thought makes a teacher, emotion is necessary to the orator; for men are not governed by their intellect, they are governed by their motive powers. The intellect is the pilot, the motive powers are the engines, and without powerful engines a great community lacks steerageway. Mr. Beecher was a man of strong emotions. As a cloudburst in the West will suddenly convert the dry bed of mountain streams into a roaring torrent, so I have seen Mr. Beecher fill the hearts of a before apathetic audience with almost tempestuous emotion. A striking illustration of this emotional power of Mr. Beecher is afforded by the well-known incident of his raising $2,200 to free two Negro girls. I copy, condensing, a picture of this scene from the "Life of Henry Ward Beecher" already quoted:

"Mr. Beecher's speech is described by an eye-witness, himself a minister, as beyond anything he had ever heard before or since. He extemporized there on the stage an auction of a Christian slave. The enumeration

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of the slave's qualities by the auctioneer and the bids that followed were given by the speaker in perfect character. He made the scene as realistic as one of Hogarth's pictures and as lurid as a Rembrandt. . . . The audience were wrought up to a perfect frenzy of excitement while that picture was being drawn, and when real contributions instead of imaginary bids were called for, the sum was easily raised and the girls were free."

Nor was it only or chiefly in such dramatic scenes that the emotional power of the orator was felt. In Plymouth Church the seats of the pewholders were thrown open to the public ten minutes before the hour for service to begin. These ten minutes were occupied in social conversation and in seating strangers, and the consequent confusion was apt to continue to a greater or less extent during the singing of the opening anthem. But when Mr. Beecher arose to offer the invocation, which was always uttered in a quiet and comparatively low tone of voice, though with carrying power which made it audible throughout the great church if the church was still, an instant hush fell over the assembly, and when the invocation was closed the social audience had already been transformed into a worshiping congregation.

Powerful, however, as Mr. Beecher's emotions were, he never lost control of them. He never laughed at his own humor, he never wept at his own pathos, and he never lost mastery over himself in his moments of intensest indignation. The emotions were strong, but the will which controlled them was stronger. There is no better way for a preacher to prevent the tears of his congregation from flowing than to allow his own tears to flow.

True oratory has always a quality of spontaneity. However thorough the preparation, the true oration is always a product of and an expression fitted to the occasion. It was this lack of spontaneity which prevented Edward Everett from being a great orator. It was this spontaneity which made, in contrast with Edward Everett's carefully prepared address, Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg speech a great oration. The following incident, reported to me by a friend, and told here in his words, illustrates this quality of spontaneity, a quality which characterized, with very rare exceptions, all of Mr. Beecher's sermons, and made him far greater as a preacher than as a lecturer:

"Mr. Beecher told me that on one of his lecture tours in the Central West he came to some city on Saturday night, and, as he never traveled on Sunday, he stopped to spend the day there. He went to the morning service in one of the Presbyterian churches and sat by the door. A young professor from Princeton preached a sermon which was, in effect, an appeal for the Seminary. Mr. Beecher said, the moment he saw the young man, his heart went out to him, for he knew him to be a spiritual gentleman; but the moment he began to preach it was quite clear that he had no more power of communication than a porcelain stove. The sermon utterly lacked personality and touched no one. 'As he sat down,' Mr. Beecher said, 'I was so engrossed in my thought of him, and so full of sympathy, that I stood up. The pastor of the church saw me, called attention to my presence, and said the congregation would be very glad if I would come forward and say something. I went forward without stopping to think. When I found myself in the pulpit, I realized that I was called upon to make a plea for Princeton Seminary. In one way it was a humorous situation. But I thought of the young man, so I made the best plea I could. I described the pioneer work of the young men of Scotch and Irish descent who went out from the Seminary in the early days to lay the foundations of Church and State in the Central and South-West. I described their heroism and self-denial. Then I made a plea to the fathers and mothers who had sons dedicated to the ministry, and the sons who had died. I pleaded with men of wealth without sons, with single women of means who had been eager to do something actively in the world and had been denied the opportunity, and I urged them to endow some one to speak for them.' If I remember rightly, he said the collection was $13,000.

"I asked him how the Presbyterian papers treated him, and he smiled and said: 'Oh, very much as a cat treats a bumblebee.'"

Deep, earnest, and sincere feeling, coupled with clear and sane thinking, makes a strong personality, and when this personality possesses dramatic action, skill in the use of language, a well-trained voice of varying compass, and a vigorous physique of not easily exhausted nervous energy, a great orator is constituted, and the influence of such oratory survives not only the man but also his fame. The country has gradually come back from the disastrous period of reconstruction to the

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statesmanlike views urged in vain upon the Nation by Henry Ward Beecher at the close of the Civil War, and the Church is founding its theology to-day upon that faith in the love of God as revealed through Jesus Christ which is gradually changing the message of the Christian Church in America from the proclamation of law enforced by fear to a gospel of love inspired by hope and inspiring to joyous service.

THIS MATTER OF IDLING

BY HELEN COALE CREW

NO one has any business, perhaps, to offer an apology for idlers when Robert Louis Stevenson has already attended to that kindly task. And yet, in the quarter-century since he wrote his delightful essay, strenuous living has made such evil headway that the idler has lost face entirely, and must needs again be encouraged in his genial shortcoming.

This matter of idling is not quite so simple as it seems; and enforced idleness, having no spontaneity about it, should never be confused with the real thing. True idling comes from within; and to have the proper flavor should always be indulged in at the expense of a duty. There should be in one's subconsciousness a persistent but unheeded tug towards something left undone, just as there should be shadows under the trees to enhance the brilliant splendor of the sun. True idling is a bold breaking away from active aggressiveness to indulge for a time in a passive receptivity, as when one lays aside the noisome pestilence known as a grass-cutter to throw one's self at length upon the fragrant sward with soul and senses open to the benign influences of the summer day. There is still to-morrow in which to finish cutting the grass—there has always been a to-morrow since the world began—but how can one be sure that ever again will come that evanescent mood of quiet ecstasy and of ecstatic quiet which is the divine right of idlers?

But, asks a fussy objector, even if to-morrow is sure to come and the grass to wait, how can you endure to waste so much time doing nothing? Upon which the true idler (who is never lazy, be it known, but always ready to pay Peter back what was borrowed for Paul) springs up indignantly to explain that not for a minute was he doing nothing! Or at least not *your* kind of nothing! And by way of illustrating his meaning he will quote Pliny's letter to his friend Minucius. Minucius, it seems, is doing the thousand and one things that crop up daily in a busy lawyer's life at Rome, trying cases, seeing clients, signing wills, attending weddings or funerals or coming-out parties—so much "noise, inane discourse, and inept labor"—while Pliny has fled to the country to save his life from broken trifles by an honest spell of idling in the wide spaces and the serene sunshine. "And how much better," he exclaims, winking slyly, no doubt, as he wields his stylus, "*otiosum esse quam nihil agere!*"—to do nothing than to do nothings!

For, as Zona Gale says, "to idle is to inhibit the body and let the spirit keep on." Alas! in how many factories, stores, offices, kitchens, is it the spirit which is inhibited while the body keeps on. And in cars, and in churches, and at lectures, even at afternoon teas, one sees only too frequently cases of all-round inhibition; but for Heaven's sake don't call this idling! Idling in the true sense is a gracious, not an inane, thing. It is what Pliny did at his villa; it is what Wordsworth did when he came upon a crowd of golden daffodils; it is what *you* do when, with your pipe, you sit out a serene hour of leisure snatched from a dull day of labor; it is what I do when I pause between tasks to ponder upon imponderable things and breathe a spiritual ozone. Surely our spirits, happily unhampered for the moment, reap a harvest not measurable in dollars or bushels. Let us disabuse our minds of the thought that the man who leans a quiet quarter-hour over one of June's fences to watch a daisy-bud unbutton itself with rosy fingers is of necessity any more of a time-waster than he who frets the day from dawn till dusk with nagging busyness.

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PRICE PROTECTION AND THE CONSUMER

BY HARRY D. NIMS

The author of this article is a member of the bar in the city of New York. His practice has led him to make a special and exhaustive study of the legal and social relations of the manufacturer to the consumer. In The Outlook for May 24, in an editorial entitled "Fixed Prices Versus Cut Prices," we announced that an article on this subject by a well-known New York lawyer was in course of preparation for The Outlook, and the present article is now published in fulfillment of that announcement. The questions of prices, fairness to the consumer, and the abolition of special privilege led to the passage of what is commonly known as the Hepburn Railway Law, enforcing uniform prices in the railway field. Similar questions are now presenting themselves in the field of general merchandise. We believe those questions will grow more and more acute and arouse more and more public interest. We believe that the Federal Congress will sooner or later have to discuss and legislate along the lines of these questions. They are questions which vitally affect not merely the manufacturer, but every housekeeper in the United States. The discussion will be carried on in The Outlook in future issues, and at an early date we shall print replies which we have received to the eight queries stated in the editorial in The Outlook of May 31.—THE EDITORS.

FOR a number of years past it has been a custom among most manufacturers of patented articles to affix to their goods a notice to retailers handling such goods that they should be sold only at a price named in such notice.

It has been a practice also, until quite recently, in the sale of both patented and non-patented articles, for the manufacturer to make contracts regarding the price with the jobber, and for the manufacturer or jobber to make similar contracts with the retailer, all looking to the same end, namely, that the manufacturer's goods should be sold to all of the public, in all places, at one and the same price.

These methods of business were unknown fifty years ago, and have been used to offset the effects of what is known as "price-cutting" on the part of the retailers who employ "cut rate" methods of advertising and selling.

On May 26, 1913, the Supreme Court of the United States rendered a decision to the effect that the ownership of a grant of a patent does not give to the patentee the right to impose upon the purchaser of his goods any obligation, after such purchase has been made, to sell such goods only at the price named by the patentee. The effect of this decision has been to place upon the same footing, so far as the right to control prices is concerned, the manufacturer of a patented article and the manufacture of a non-patented article; and the business world is now facing the question, Is it possible for a manufacturer to maintain a system which will enable him to sell his goods at one price to all? At this time also the public should consider whether or not it is to the interest of consumers of these goods that manufacturers should be permitted to install and maintain such a system.

The courts are interested primarily, of course, in the latter question. They are interested in the rights of the manufacturer, as such, only in so far as he possesses rights that are different from the rights of his fellow-citizens.

A. T. Stewart achieved a world-wide reputation some years ago because he installed in his store what was known as a one-price system, and ended, in his business, for good and all the question of "dicker" between his clerks and their customers. His goods bore their price, and the customers could take them or leave them at that price. That act of Mr. Stewart was a regulation of his own methods of handling his own business, and was an act which has received the plaudits of the community ever since, as a far-seeing one, and beneficial in the highest degree not only to himself but to the public.

In Mr. Stewart's day what we define to-day as "price-cutting" was hardly known. In fact, it was then impossible, because in those days no article had a fixed price. A person entering a store was confronted with the same condition that now prevails abroad in many places, where articles of merchandise are without price, and are sold for as much as the salesman can induce the purchaser to pay for them.

Price-cutting presupposes a known price

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and value which prevails generally in the community. The cut price appeals only to persons who recognize it as lower than a well-known higher price which they have customarily paid for the article in question. It represents a revolt against the attempt of the manufacturer to sell his goods on a one-price-to-all basis. In reality, therefore, the price-cutter is a reversion to the time antedating Mr. Stewart's famous reform.

Mr. Stewart evidently believed that, while there were many business transactions in which bargaining was necessary and useful, in his business relations with the public over the counter of his store bargaining had no place; and the public has agreed with him ever since that time. To-day the manufacturer takes an analogous stand, as we shall see. And the question is whether this, too, is another advance in business methods that should be welcomed as generally beneficial.

Not all price-cutting is destructive or injurious. It is often necessary to sell goods far below the ordinary price; as, for instance, when a merchant retires from business, or becomes bankrupt, or removes his business. In exigencies of this kind a merchant must convert his goods into money with as little delay as possible, and at whatever price he can obtain for them. With such cutting of prices, when so actually necessary, no one has any quarrel. It does not destroy trade or property, and the necessity for this selling at a lower price is evident. The price-cutting to which objection is made, and which many believe to be against the interests of the public, is always unnecessary. To do it successfully involves capital. It is the act of a prosperous merchant and not of one involved in difficulties or retiring from business. Its object is not to convert merchandise into money quickly, but to advertise; not to give the public an opportunity to buy cheaply, but to decoy customers into the advertiser's shop for the purpose of buying, not the article on which the price is cut, but the articles which are sold sufficiently above the normal price to make up for the loss which the advertiser voluntarily takes upon the article the price of which he has lowered.

The true effect of this method of merchandising cannot be fully appreciated without understanding the changes which have come about in the last twenty-five years in the method of selling and distributing goods. Some years ago the influence of the retailer on merchandising was entirely different from what it is to-day, and an accurate realization of his present relation to the selling and distribution of goods is absolutely essential to any discussion of this price problem. Until very recently the quality of practically all goods on the retailer's shelves was an open question. About all that the consumer knew about them was that the dealer had thought well enough of them to put them in his stock. They bore no brand or guarantee. The consumer had to decide for himself, often with the dealer's urging and advice, as to quality. This sort of merchandising still exists in an exaggerated form on the East Side of New York, where one often sees the customer pulling, weighing, tasting, smelling and otherwise testing the goods offered, while the dealer with waving arms delivers his encomiums on the exceptional merits of his wares.

To-day a reasonable guarantee of quality is an essential to the success of most lines of goods, and it is the maker and not the retailer who assumes this burden. The retailer may, and does, still advise as to the merits of various *competing articles*, but the final competition comes after the article is sold and put into use and its value is compared by the customer with that of some rival article meeting the same need. The great change in these buying or shopping conditions is shown by the fact that twenty years ago most of the buying for the family was done by the husband, and necessarily so, for every purchase presented an opportunity for the shrewd salesman to take advantage of an unwary buyer. To-day, on the contrary, careful statistics show that about 86 per cent of the retail buying is done by the women of the household. This change has come about because buying now can be safely done even by children in many instances, because the quality of the goods sold under the various brands and trade-marks is known to all.

The most important consideration, so far as the public is concerned, is of course that the play of the laws of competition shall not be suppressed or curtailed; that the consumer should be afforded an opportunity to choose from and inspect as large a number of the articles as possible which are on sale to meet the purpose for which he is buying. If this be true, this end will by no means be met by merely affording an opportunity to retailers to sell the goods on their shelves at any price they see fit. In addition, there must be preserved, by some method, an opportunity by

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which goods can be sold in many places—be easily inspected by the buying public.

There is one form of restraint of trade which is not always taken into account in a discussion of this question, namely, that which results from the elimination of the small dealer—the local store—by reason of the methods of the mail order house and department stores, which, by their constant so-called "sales," so depreciate the value and injure the reputation of standard goods as to render business unprofitable for the small dealer.

This change in the conditions under which goods are sold has not in any degree abrogated the economic laws of competition. But it has changed the conditions under which they exercise their beneficent influence upon trade. The operation of these laws in the small communities of fifty years ago was evident to the most casual observer. To-day, so ramified and intricate are the methods by which business is done, and so silent are its processes, and so extensive its operation, that even those who are best posted upon these conditions hesitate to define exactly the economic laws which underlie present-day trading.

These being the conditions of the market, the manufacturer of branded goods has, generally speaking, for some years past sold his goods to the retailer and the jobber in such a way as to insure that the price at which his goods shall be bought by the public shall be uniform everywhere throughout the country. By advertising he has created a demand for his goods, and his idea has been to sell them on the same basis as if every user of them came to his own counter at his factory and bought directly of him. Despite the apparent good reason for this, from a buyer's point of view, as well as from that of the manufacturers, the courts, generally speaking, have considered that the means so far used to accomplish this result have been against public policy, and therefore illegal.

Had every manufacturer maintained a store, and sold all his goods at retail, it is difficult to see how the manufacturer's "one-price-to-all" policy could be less commendable or less generally beneficial than is the Stewart plan for a retail merchant. Evidently the public would benefit were such a plan possible; and is it solely because such a distributive method is impossible for the manufacturer that this problem has arisen? The average manufacturer must, in the nature of things, sell to jobbers if he is to be able to offer his goods widely to the public, keep his price down to a reasonable figure, and avoid bad retail accounts in districts too remote for him to know or learn the standing of the retailers. Where jobbers' services are unnecessary he must still sell outright to the retailer, because he usually has not the capital necessary to own his goods both while in process of manufacture and while on the retailer's shelves awaiting purchase by the public. In other words, he must, in order to distribute his goods widely, usually sell them outright to jobber or retailer, who, in turn, will sell to the consumer.

These sales to jobber and to retailer result in injecting into the situation several legal rights and principles on which the price-cutter bases his legal rights, and which form also the basis of the charge that the manufacturer, in protecting prices, is restraining trade.

The most important of these rules is that, whenever a person has sold absolutely and without condition a piece of personal property belonging to him, he has no further dominion or control over that property. This is a general rule. It is possible, however, under certain circumstances, to attach to the sale of personal property a condition; as, for instance, an artist selling his painting or a sculptor his statue might stipulate in the sale that the buyer should not resell it for less than a stipulated sum. Such a stipulation would probably be legal.

But when we attempt to apply this doctrine to the distribution of goods, we meet with another rule of law, namely, that all contracts which have the effect of unreasonably restraining trade or suppressing competition are void. The Supreme Court has apparently held that it is unlawful for a manufacturer to affix to *every sale* of his goods a stipulation of this sort, because the result of his so doing is a restraint of trade—a suppression of competition. Undoubtedly such agreements restricted competition as it existed fifty years ago, but there is grave doubt in many minds if such an agreement has this effect upon the competition of to-day.

Be that as it may, the price-cutter seizes upon these doctrines as the basis of a legal right in him to sell all goods which he buys for any price he sees fit, regardless of the effect which it may have upon the consumer or upon the man who has made the goods. He notes the fact that the Ingersoll watch

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has in the public mind a recognized value of $1, and that a cake of Ivory Soap has a recognized value of 5 cents. In his desire to advertise himself he places these articles on sale, the one at 60 cents and the other at 3 cents, and for no reason except that by so doing he advertises himself as selling all of his other goods at similarly advantageous prices. This, of course, is a misrepresentation, for he does nothing of the sort. If he did, he would soon be compelled to go out of business. The average of profits of the price-cutter is probably no less than that of the smaller dealer and oftentimes much larger. An official of one of the large stores in New York testified under oath within the past two months that the usual, customary, and ordinary profit on a certain large line of goods in most large stores was 100 per cent.

What, then, is the economic effect of cut-rate selling from the consumer's view-point? Let us analyze the methods of the price-cutting store. On Monday it announces that it will for one week sell a well-known $1 article for eighty cents. Around this sale it puts restrictions. Only one article to a person. The sale is for "one week only" (to limit the store's losses). It will put on sale, not an unlimited quantity, but perhaps a quarter of a gross each day. When these are sold, the customer is told that the supply is exhausted, and if possible he is sold the store's own brand, on which a large profit is made. At the end of the week the price of the well-known article is put back to normal, and some other similar, largely advertised article is made the "leader."

The net result to the public of this "sale" is this:

(1) The comparatively few persons who each day bought the quarter gross of the article offered for sale at the cut price were benefited by saving twenty cents each.

(2) Other customers of the store made up, by paying extra high prices on other purchases, all that their neighbors had saved on the sale.

(3) The sale rendered it more difficult for the purchasing public thereafter to buy the article at any price, because the advertising of the cut price had lowered the value of the article in the estimation of all who saw the advertisement, and this of course depreciated the value of the article upon the shelves of every store in the community. Price-cutters are not numerous. Less than ten per cent of the retail shops the country over cut prices, according to the best information available. The other ninety per cent refuse to adopt cut-rate methods. Small dealers are not able financially to be price-cutters; their sales are so limited that they cannot do business unless they receive a reasonable profit. Hence it is but natural that they should refuse to push, and often even refuse to carry, articles on which they cannot make such normal profit. Where this occurs, the public is forced to go to the large centers of trade in order to purchase. This is an undesirable condition of affairs from every standpoint. An attorney for one of the country's greatest stores admitted recently before a Congressional committee that price-cutting tended to drive the small dealer out of business. Judge Holmes, of the United States Supreme Court, has said:

> I cannot believe that in the long run the public will profit by this Court permitting knaves to cut reasonable prices for some ulterior purpose of their own, and thus impair, if not destroy, the production and sale of articles which it is assumed to be desirable that the public should be able to get.

(4) Out of the "sale" has come, then, no net gain or profit to the public as a whole. What has been one customer's gain has been another's loss. There is no true economy in that. The only one who has benefited by the sale has been the price-cutter. He has gotten people into his store. By this device he has increased his own sales by inflicting an injury unnecessarily on both his small competitors and on the reputation of goods in which the public have learned to have confidence.

(5) Out of the "sale" has resulted a distinct injury to the business of ninety per cent of the retailers in the locality that handle this article, not only in depreciation of the value of their stock of this article on their shelves, but in the general discrediting of one of their staple articles of trade.

From the foregoing it will be seen that it is at least very doubtful if the consumers in the community obtain any real benefit from the operations of the price-cutter, and it is certain that, if it be beneficial to the public generally, small dealers scattered through the community should be able to do business on a reasonable basis. It is certain that the price-cutters in the country are constantly lessening the number of stores at which the public can buy branded goods. There

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are undoubtedly advantages in large stores and in mail order houses, but thinking people should consider whether or not the time has come when we should permit conditions to continue which seriously jeopardize the existence of the small store which gives the convenience of neighborhood purchasing, a convenience that no community can afford to lose; and we should also seriously consider whether it is the part of wisdom to encourage, rather than discourage, the attempts on the part of our manufacturers to scatter their goods as broadly as possible over the land, and thus to get in as close contact as may be with the purchasing public.

The manufacturer of to-day has ceased merely to manufacture; although seldom selling directly to the public, he has become a retailer; his advertising is directed to the consumer, and he is assuming all the responsibility of a retailer as well as that of a manufacturer. The manufacturer of a delicate machine may sell it to a jobber, and the jobber to a retailer; nevertheless, the maker takes the responsibility of setting it up and putting it in operation; and he assumes all responsibility, and rightly so, for imperfections. Not long ago one of our automobile manufacturing concerns discovered that, by error, several slightly defective wheels had been put on cars which had been sold and were in use. Regardless of expense, its agent searched until the machines were located, and the owners warned not to use them until new wheels could be forwarded. Other manufacturers now go to the extent of voluntarily replacing, without charge, all articles of their make that, after being used for a certain period, give out or fail to give satisfaction.

In short, it is evident that the manufacturer has assumed responsibility for goods sold under his brand, which often continues long after he has sold them. In assuming this responsibility he has striven to get into closer relations with the public that buys and uses his product. This close contact, made possible by telephone, telegraph, parcel post, fair railway rates, and new selling methods, must inevitably result in public benefit.

If a close relationship between manufacturer and public is to exist, there must be general confidence in the fairness of the price paid for his article. Every time, therefore, his article is sold by a price-cutter at cost or below cost for advertising purposes, a portion of the public loses its confidence in him, for it believes that it has been misled in the past into paying extortionate prices, and that in reality this manufacturer's goods are not worth the price it has been paying for them.

We have, then, on the one hand, the manufacturer striving to get closer to the consumer, and with him in this effort are over ninety per cent of the merchants who are selling his goods. On the other hand, we have perhaps ten per cent of the dealers invoking the legal rules we have mentioned, and the belief in many quarters that this attitude on the manufacturer's part to protect his price represents a restraint of trade—a curtailment of the free working of the economic laws of competition.

At the bottom of this entire situation lies the question, Does such control of price, whether by contract or by the use of the privileges granted by the patent laws, constitute a restriction preventing competition?

As we have seen, were all the producers of all the articles used in a community located in the community, and did all of them sell directly to the consumer, competition would be defined easily. Each one would be free to fix his price at will. If A and B made watches of equal value, and A charged $10 for his while B charged $5, no one would attempt to prevent A from fixing that price for his own goods. Competition between the two watches would soon compel either the lowering of A's price or his retirement from business. A Sherman law might well be passed in such a city to prevent A and B, and all watchmakers in the community, from combining and agreeing to sell all watches of that grade at $10. That done, the interest of the public would be safeguarded by the economic law of competition—the freedom of the public to decide which article was cheapest.

But, as conditions are at present, are we not losing sight of the real issue, when once the Sherman Law insures us against such combinations, in attempting further to say, as our courts are now doing, that because A must employ a jobber and a retailer to distribute his goods, the jobber and retailer shall be free to sell A's wares at any price they will? Are we not forgetting that, after all, true competition is not between retailers and jobbers of these rival articles, but between the rival articles themselves?

Such is already the view found in several localities. California courts have already held

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that, in the absence of combinations among dealers, the manufacturer may fix his price and prevent the price-cutter from destroying it.

Recently statutes have been passed in New Jersey and South Dakota, and several other States, forbidding retailers, for the purpose of destroying competition, to charge a greater price in one community than in another, considering any differences in freight charges from the place of manufacture to the retailer's store. One of these laws has been upheld by the United States Supreme Court as Constitutional.

In April of this year New Jersey passed a law forbidding, "for the purpose of attracting trade," the appropriation of brands, names, reputation, or good will, by depreciating the value of such products in the public mind, or by misrepresentation as to value or quality, or by price inducement.

In June, 1912, Denmark passed a law providing for the fining of persons who "sell or offer for sale goods in original wrappers from producers or jobbers, upon which their fixed prices for the retail trade have been indicated at a lower price" (except in cases of sales of damaged goods, sales by reason of removal, or retiring from business, etc.), unless permission of the maker or jobber is first obtained.

In Germany the courts have recently recognized that the sale of goods by price-cutting methods is a violation of the German law against unfair competition, for the reason that such acts damage the maker's property by creating the belief that its goods can be bought at different prices at retail. And in Belgium, while there seems to be a division of judicial opinion on the question, decisions of similar tenor have been recently rendered.

Those who oppose price-protection systems picture a time when, if these systems are permitted, all manufacturers will sell their goods at fixed prices, and the result will be a condition of affairs far worse than that which prevails at present, so far as the cost of living is concerned. Under such conditions it is claimed that competition will entirely cease, and each retailer will be merely selling goods on which the price was fixed before it came into his hands. Those who entertain such fears as these fail to take into consideration the fact that so long as the channels of trade are kept open there will always be found those who can make money in satisfying the varied demands of the different classes of people in the community. The fact that one brand of razor cannot be bought for less nor more than $10 does not prevent a most successful business being built up by some one else whose razor cannot be bought for less nor more than $1, and another which can be sold only at $2. The fixing of the price cannot prevent the multiplying of articles of trade to meet the varying needs of the consumer; and it is believed that careful thought on this subject will demonstrate that it is far more important at this time to consider the evils which are likely to come from the concentration of the retail merchandising of our country in the hands of the few large corporations, than it is to worry about what might happen were the prices upon all merchandise to become fixed—something which, in the nature of things, is an impossibility.

It is now generally recognized by our courts that the names of articles of commerce are most valuable pieces of property, and entitled to the courts' protection, like any other property. Recently the president of a large American concern stated in public that the name of the article it manufactured was worth a million dollars for each letter in the name—$6,000,000. Our courts of equity are constantly protecting trade names against various forms of unfair practice used by unscrupulous dealers. The difficulty with the price-cutting problem is that equity courts, reflecting as they do public opinion, do not as yet consider that the act of the price-cutter is in any sense unfair, or destructive of property, or is an act which is a wrong against the general public welfare. Once that is realized, there is ample power in our courts to enforce the observance of such rules of business procedure as are contained in the Danish law just referred to, viz.: that *unnecessary* selling of branded goods at prices other than those specified by the manufacturer is a wrong, on the ground that such selling is not a fair and proper method of competition. In the absence of such an awakening of public sentiment, the difficulties involved in the present condition of affairs will continue to contribute a very appreciable share to the general disturbance of business now prevailing.

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THE SPECTATOR

IT was in Boston; the street was dirty and the children were dirtier. They were crowding in eagerly at the door of the settlement house and swarming upstairs in an animated babel of noise. It looked like a lively occasion, and, between little Syrians and Italians and Irish and Hebrews, it was also a cosmopolitan affair. On the first floor there was folk-dancing in progress; on the second, an exhibition of handicraft; but the children did not stop climbing till they reached the third story and the Market Show. "Hey, Nick, dis de t'ird time you been up!" called one sharp-eyed boy to another, who could not deny the impeachment.

The Spectator had a very vague idea of what a Market Show was like. He had heard of the varied activities of that Municipal League which keeps Boston's classic nose forever on the grindstone of betterment, and he knew that it made a specialty of reaching the children of the city streets. But exactly how the question of cleaning up markets and provision stores could be made alluring to the young idea seemed puzzling. Once seen, however, it was clear enough. In the first place, these little boys and girls climbing the stairs were themselves marketers in ordinary to their families. They were accustomed to shop. They had the zeal born of knowledge. Any show about markets was a show they wanted to see. In the second place, the show was arranged so that it went home to their eyes and minds unerringly, and linked itself with their daily experience.

In one small room at the head of the stairs stood the "Clean Market," with two young ladies to explain it to Angelina and Niccolo, Ibrahim and Mary, Terence and Isaac, and the rest of the confusion of tongues. There was nothing there that any cheap market stall might not have. The table that held the provisions for sale was only six feet by two and a half, and it held two small glass cases, one upright, for cakes, pastry, and bread, the other horizontal, and filled with such exhibits as roast chickens (in *papier-maché*), dill pickles in a tray, baskets of berries, prunes, a head of salad, bunches of celery, etc. "Say, lady, are them *real?*" was the cry of each group of children that edged by in the crush. It was explained to the youthful inquirers that the plump and varnished fowls were not real and that the berries were stuffed, but that the rest were genuine, especially the custard pie, and that all such food, to be wholesome as well as delicious, must be kept under glass, fresh and clean. In front of the table two boxes of vegetables, set upon top of other boxes so as to stand well above the floor, were shown, and a placard stated:

THESE VEGETABLES ARE RAISED
EIGHTEEN INCHES FROM THE FLOOR
TO PROTECT THEM
FROM ANIMALS AND DIRT

Rows of canned goods and package goods, neatly arranged and spotless, were lined up around the glass cases on the table, and the whole array breathed an air of Spotless Town. Clean brown paper lay in a roll, ready to wrap food in, and a patent covered garbage pail contained all waste. The children, with the air of connoisseurs, considered each item and found it good. "That's de right way!" —"Newspaper ain't no good to wrap pie in!"—"De flies can't get in!"—and similar enlightened comments were passed. But it was when they surged on into the front room and saw the "Dirty Market" that the floodgates of speech were loosed. This part of the show struck home with admirable force and simplicity. How anything so overpowering could be constructed out of quite inoffensive materials the Spectator could not at first realize. He dreaded to take a good breath, for fear of the odor that must—but it wasn't! It was all, so to speak, in his eye, after all. The cat in the box of macaroni was only a stuffed cat. The dog exploring the basket of spinach was of the same harmless variety. The cut squash and cabbage, the chunks of doubtful-looking meat (*papier-maché*), and the half-pie, were indeed covered with flies, but the insects were artificial. Berries, salad, potatoes, and bread lay in confusion among newspapers, and fly-specked cans and wilted lettuce were in evidence. On the floor beneath the table were the boxes and baskets of vegetables, many half spilled out. Above the table a dirty old coat hung from a nail in the wall, down over half a cabbage, some dingy carrots, and remnants of banana-peel. A cigar stump or two, specked apples, and a weather-beaten cocoanut graced

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the board and added to the ensemble, and so did package goods, opened and half spilled.

"The lady at our market cuts butter, 'nd salt fish, 'nd wipes her knife on her apron," said one little girl, "and she wipes her hands on her apron too. I wish't she had a clean market." "The market where I go, the cat, she isn't in the macaroni," another child remarked. "She lies in the spaghetti!" "Lady, is it wrong to put the baby on the counter when you're buyin' in the market?" asked a "little mother" earnestly. As for the boys, they manifested a constant and passionate desire to possess themselves of the artificial flies. "There were ten flies on that squash when the show opened," the young girl in charge of the table confided to the Spectator's sympathetic ear, "and there's not one left, and I forgot to bring a box of flies along. I ought to have remembered that the boys can't resist taking souvenir flies!"

Then she turned again to the children to give the recurrent talk—about seven minutes in duration—which emphasizes all the points of the show. Many of the boys and girls were going to write school compositions about the exhibit. Already there is a collection of two thousand compositions resulting from having had this Market Show in various Boston schools, a week at a time in each place, with lantern slides in addition, and talks on hygienic conditions. In the two rooms also, besides the market tables, were exhibits of a clean and a dirty set of three-room apartments, on the doll-house plan, with the roofs off; and around these the children massed like bees, picking out the good and bad points with emphasis. "Dey oughtn' to put de kid's crib by de stove!" "De winders ain't been washed fer twenty years!" "Aw! She ain't finished her wash! look at it dere in de tub!" "Look at all dem guys sleepin' in de one room!"

There were lodgers in the dirty apartment, four to a room, and no ventilation for one dark room except by the air-shaft, and the bedding not in use was pushed into this airless room. Garbage buckets stood in the halls, the stairways were unlighted, food was strewn over the table, and everything was slatternly and unhygienic. In the clean apartment everything was neat and every room had a window and a circulation of air. The children hung over the two models and discussed them freely; and they also took in the pretty table in one corner of the front room, with a white tablecloth, and a vase of flowers, where food prepared by the cooking class was set out in glass and china dishes.

"A great deal of the marketing in this section of Boston is done by the girls under twelve," one of the Radcliffe girls in charge explained to the Spectator. "We found that out when Radcliffe helped the League to investigate the small markets and provision stores last year. We went two by two, and it was very interesting work. It doesn't seem to matter where the shops are—some very clean shops are in poor neighborhoods, and some very dirty places among well-to-do neighborhoods. Some people who couldn't speak any English kept clean markets, and were much interested when they learned what we were doing. The children are wonderful—some of them have taken custom away from dirty stores to clean ones, and made the provision-sellers go to work in a hurry and reform, in order not to lose any more trade."

The Spectator respectfully suggested that "the children looked rather grimy themselves." "Yes," admitted the Radcliffe aide, "they *are* dirty, but they used to be dirtier. They are on the way to be clean, and to clean up everything. Besides, they have all come in to-day after school, just as they are—they couldn't wait to go home and wash, they were so anxious to see the show." As the Spectator stemmed the stairway tide, going down to the door, he met later arrivals, shining with soap and water, who bore out this explanation. A group of spick-and-span girls, all in white dresses, with green and pink paper caps and sashes, were dancing folk-dances in great style to crowded benches in the long parlor. The handicraft exhibition, in full swing, included clay modeling, beaten brass, Syrian and Italian embroidery and lace. The Spectator found himself wondering whether, in spite of the dirty street, in spite of the dirt on the faces and hands, these children were not being educated, in some respects, better than more supposedly fortunate ones. A child of eleven that can do the family marketing and Hungarian peasant dances into the bargain is ahead of plenty of grown people, for that matter; and perhaps a Market Show might be a good thing for many a flourishing woman's club to-day.

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THE NEW BOOKS

A LOVER AND LEADER OF MEN

UNDER the title "A Sunny Life" has lately been published (Little, Brown & Co.) the biography of the late Dr. Samuel J. Barrows, by his wife, Isabel C. Barrows. Of him it has been said: "To the end he will be known as the Abou Ben Adhem of his generation." Ever unassuming, self-abnegating, he was content to be written by the recording angel simply "as one that loves his fellow-men." The fact shines out in the record of his life from childhood to the end. Its well-doing was singularly diversified from its beginning at the age of nine to earn his daily bread for a decade in his widowed mother's home to its final period of humanitarian activities in his own and foreign lands. By turns a reporter, church pastor, an editor, a Congressman, a leader in prison reform and international arbitration, these diverse studies of his career were unified by a constant pursuit of a purpose increasing with gathered power. From first to last a student ever learning, he was always a minister of truth, religion, and philanthropy.

A singular charm pervades the narrative—a record of two lives inseparable in their ideal unity. Alike in serious study and strenuous work and idyllic recreation, in religious faith and in philanthropic devotedness, husband and wife were comrades at home and abroad through forty happy years. The story of this sunny life is related partly in his words, partly in hers. It could not have been adequately written by any but his other self.

During the last fifteen years of his life, so far as he was known in his own city and State, Dr. Barrows was known chiefly as the Corresponding Secretary of the New York Prison Reform Association. He was also, by President Cleveland's appointment, the American member of the International Prison Commission. The immense industry veiled by these commonplace titles few but his immediate associates understood—the required correspondence on penal legislation with nearly every State in our country, a vast number of committee meetings and public addresses, constant intercourse with the Legislature, and official tours in Europe. Foundation work lies mostly below the surface, and his was of that inconspicuous but permanent kind. For this his deep-soiled humanity had given him the essential fitness which he at once began to apply as a wise reformer must, in exploring and exposing the festering sores to be healed—those nearest him first.

The county jails of his own State he discovered to be "institutions for the manufacture of criminals," and the State prison at Sing Sing, nearest his own city, to be in "a frightful physical condition." Among the pages which record his principles and plans in reform work, and his efforts, some successful and some balked, to give them practical effect, the pages on Sing Sing give a poignant lesson on official incompetence or worse, and public apathy toward an inveterate scandal. Of one intolerable evil there he had to report within a month of his death: "There is not a prison official in Europe who would not be amazed at such a condition." While concerned with prison structure and prison regulations, he interested himself in individual prisoners and their families. To one such family in helpless plight, a poor mother with three small children, was given, at Mrs. Barrows's suggestion, a home for three months in his summer camp on Lake Memphremagog till the father's release on probation, under the law drafted and pressed through to enactment by Dr. Barrows. From inspection of thirty-six prisons in fourteen European countries, accompanied by Mrs. Barrows in the interest of prisons for women, he brought home large information on American backwardness in introducing modern improvements in humane provisions for human needs. While Europe is profiting, as he reported, by an introduction of the reformatory for younger adults, our institution of the probation system for first offenders, and the children's court, all European countries, even Russia, can give us lessons in the structure and administration of prisons. This useful knowledge of our neglect and ignorance his biographer has put on the record of its teacher.

While active in this work of National importance, he was active in another of international beneficence. Congress had chosen him during his membership in the House as the American member of the International Parliamentary Union for Arbitration—the first of our citizens thus honored. To this

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duty, as to all others, he devoted heart and soul, repeatedly attending the annual meetings in Europe. When the Union met at St. Louis at the time of the Exposition, the office of the Prison Association was the headquarters of the extensive preparations for its reception. The brilliant tour given its members, at public expense, from New York to Colorado and back, including a naval visit to West Point (in his view a peace-serving institution), was organized and conducted in large part by him with the aid of friends in the army and navy—for in early manhood he had ridden with General Custer and others in the far West. Its story in the elaborate souvenir volume presented by our Government to every delegate was the product of his pen.

Conspicuously a man of affairs, Dr. Barrows was none the less a man of books. The list of his writings shows that he found, or made, time to write much besides official reports and letters. One of his volumes, "The Isles and Shrines of Greece," was described by a diplomat in that country as "the most thoroughly satisfactory book about Greece that I have read, delightful from beginning to end." The Greek poets and Cicero's writings regaled his leisure in summer hours. His mastery of modern tongues—French, Spanish, German, Modern Greek—served him well in his official tours. He roused a Hungarian audience to enthusiasm by a speech in their difficult tongue. Specimens of his lyrics set to music show that he was no mean poet and composer.

Prematurely for the world was such a life suddenly laid down in and for the work he loved. With the doxology on his lips he said "Good-night," and fell asleep, honored and lamented in many lands, a right chivalrous Knight of the Temple Spiritual.

Temper of the American People (The). By George Thomas Smart. The Pilgrim Press, Boston. $1.25.

An appreciative and in many respects discriminating essay on the United States and its people by an Englishman for thirty-two years resident here. The author often puts his hand on a defect that the ordinary American overlooks or regards as a virtue. For instance: "Politics are not moral in America, yet the American blindly expects amelioration to come by political instruments. To shout the declarations of freedom and right and expect them to work automatically is only another form of the doctrine of divine right. . . ." Sometimes the author describes a generally recognized trait with terseness; for instance: "The terrible fear lurking in the American mind with some of the force of an aboriginal instinct is fear of the executive. Americans learned the lesson of the Revolution almost too well." Sometimes the author goes flatly against the conventional estimate of American traits; for instance: "The American esteems money as money less than the Englishman of equal station—less than the French *rentier*." Occasionally the author allows himself to express opinions on subjects he has but superficially examined, at least once indulging in the criticism of a subject which the criticism itself shows he is not even elementarily acquainted with; but such lapses—even if they are not readily forgiven—are to be expected in a book of this kind.

Messages of the Men and Religion Movement. Complete in Seven Volumes. Association Press, New York City. $4.

For a year the Men and Religion Forward Movement was in active operation. In city after city local committees were making surveys, and bands of experts were holding meetings. Then, at the end, a "Congress" was held in New York City. The seven small volumes (each small enough to be carried in a good-sized coat-pocket) which contain the reports of the various commissions of the movement and the principal addresses at the "Congress," preserve in permanent form some of the results of that year of work by many men. The chief defect of this series is that which is likely to characterize any such publication—there is too much of the essay, the hortatory address, the generalized statement, too little of the specific, the concrete—too much opinion, too little information. Nevertheless there is a great deal that is valuable. The volumes deal respectively with the general Congress addresses, with social service, with Bible study, with Christian unity and missions, with boys' work (which means work for boys), with the rural church, and with the church and the press.

Highways and Byways of the Great Lakes. By Clifton Johnson. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.

Mr. Johnson, as in other volumes of the American Highways and Byways Series, tells about the people quite as much as about the places. He has a friendly way of chatting with all sorts and conditions of men, and the little dialogues strewn through the book are homely and racy. Wanderings in seven States and glimpses of Canada are here described, and characteristic photographs also of people as well as places are presented every few pages. The author is as good a photographer as he is a writer. Few books have the pictorial and descriptive qualities so equally and entertainingly in evidence. Informative as well as picturesque, the book

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deals with the country more than the city, "the rural byways, the villages, the farm homes, and the fisherman loitering by the watersides." Each chapter has appended a note with practical suggestions for travelers.

Spell of the Italian Lakes (The). By W. D. McCrackan. L. C. Page & Co., Boston, Mass. $2.50.

This is one of the Spell Series, former volumes of which have pointed out choice and lovely places in France, Italy, Holland, Switzerland, the Rhine, and also in other parts of Italy. The author is an experienced and appreciative traveler; he not only describes the lakes and their towns, and tells what there is that is specially enjoyable about them, but also adds just those bits of historical information which give a meaning to travel and observation. There are many pictures in color and in black and white, and these do a great deal to recall to the eye the quaintness and beauty of the lake region.

Through the Unknown Southwest. By Agnes C. Laut. McBride, Nast & Co., New York. $3.

Miss Laut's writing about the Northwest is well known and valuable. Now she turns to the Southwest and gives us a well-illustrated series of chapters in popular style about the National Forests, the Mesas, the Painted Desert, the Grand Cañon, the Missions, and other fascinating features of that great region where, as she says, "you can shake hands with the Stone Age," where you may learn of prehistoric people, may follow the track of the Spanish explorer, may, as to scenery, find half a dozen Switzerlands, "from Glacier Park in the north to Cloudcroft in New Mexico," and may revel in archæology, study big game, trace strange legends, and, if you like, motor in great parks and along beautiful coasts. "Picturesque America" here finds its most varied and wonderful features. The description always has liveliness and animation; and the method of treatment is popular rather than learned or statistical.

Story of Don John of Austria (The). By Luis Coloma. The John Lane Company, New York. $4.50.

Don John died in 1578. He was the son of the Emperor Charles V, and, it is said, of Barbara Blomberg of Regensburg, then a city of the Empire. Far away in Spain the boy grew up, a humble country lad. Suddenly, as a soldier, he was launched from this placid childhood into a strenuous and distinguished life. He became a great soldier and his was a striking figure of a striking period of history. As marking that period we have but to think of Don John's expulsion of the Moors from Granada, or of his great triumph over the Turks at the Battle of Lepanto—an epoch-making battle (1571) because it freed Europe from the fear of the Turks, and Europe had been trembling from that fear ever since the Turks captured Constantinople, over a century before. The illustration consists of a series of portraits by the masters of the period of the chief personages who appear in the book. The text is fascinating. Fortunately, Lady Moreton's translation preserves for us, as do not all translations, the atmosphere of the original. Another than the very fervently Roman Catholic Padre Luis Coloma might have presented that age differently—doubtless in a way more attractive to the ultra-Protestant reader. But, unless we are much mistaken, most readers will probably look upon this work as an example of a singularly appropriate treatment; for the book has the quaint and compelling charm of a contemporary document, even if, religiously, it seems as bigotedly biased as was the age it describes.

Political Activities of the Baptists and Fifth Monarchy Men in England. By Louise Ford Brown, Ph.D. Oxford University Press, New York City. $1.50.

This prize essay by Dr. Brown, of Wellesley College, illuminates historical facts of some significance to-day. In the Cromwellian revolution religion was a dominant power, and a party of extremists dreamed of an earthly Kingdom of Christ and his saints, as prophesied in Daniel (ii. 37–45; viii. 13–28), to succeed the four kingdoms of the world. For these so-called Fifth Monarchy men, Baptists, divided then as now into radicals and conservatives, were a recruiting ground while the conservatives were able to hold the official organization to the support of Cromwell's Protectorate. After his death both parties, in their vain because uncompromising insistence on their ideal of a perfect state, concurred in measures that resulted in bringing back the Stuarts, detested by each. The documentary evidence sustaining the author's statements is cited in copious notes. The lesson of that period is in point now—the folly of attempting to realize a high ideal by a single jump instead of progressive steps.

Common Sense in Foreign Policy. By Sir Harry Johnston. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $1.25.

In discussing British foreign policy Sir Harry Johnston knows whereof he speaks. The present volume should be of interest at this particular time chiefly because of his conclusions with regard to a change in the map of Europe, due to the Balkan War. This change, in his estimation, concerns not only the Balkan Peninsula but also the regions to the north. Sir Harry evidently expects to see Hungary become a Black Sea power by the extension of its territory to that sea. He even expects the revival of Poland as an independent kingdom, but in alliance with Austria and Germany. He also thinks that those provinces of the Austrian Empire, Croatia, Slavonia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina, would become one kingdom, still under the Empire, but with the autonomy now possessed by Bohemia. Finally, in the struggle between Teuton and Slav, British sympathies, in Sir Harry Johnston's mind, should go to Austria-

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Germany. Russia, we learn, only needs education of a modern type and an enlightened Government realizing the handicap to advancement which lies in the abuse of alcohol to vie with the United States as a nationality capable of dominating a hemisphere. Sir Harry sees a danger to the British Empire in a possible Russian occupancy of Constantinople and Asia Minor, especially in the facilities such developments would give for a Russian descent on Syria and Egypt—"Egypt, the wasp-waist of the British Empire." Russian ambitions in the rest of Asia, however, are, according to this critic, checked "with a revivified China, patrolled by Japan, the United States, Germany, and Britain." The recent Russian absorption of Mongolia certainly does not tally with this statement. Sir Harry Johnston's book will awaken other objections on the part of observers of current events and movements.

Works of Gilbert Parker (The). Vols. XV and XVI. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $2 per vol.

To the Imperial Edition of Sir Gilbert Parker's Works, on which we have commented more than once, is now added his Anglo-Egyptian romance, "The Weavers," which he regards as representing a wider outlook of life and a clearer understanding of social problems than any previous work.

Art Museums and Schools. By Stockton Axson, Litt.D., Kenyon Cox, Litt.D., G. Stanley Hall, Ph.D., and Oliver S. Tonks, Ph.D. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.

Suggestive reading for teachers in art and also for instructors in the classics, history, and literature may be found in the volume comprising the lectures recently delivered at the Metropolitan Museum of Art by Stockton Axson, Kenyon Cox, G. Stanley Hall, and Oliver S. Tonks. Their illustrations were of course taken from objects in the Museum. In vivacious style the first lecturer shows how Hogarth's "Peg Woffington" "explains why Charles Reade got so infatuated with his 'darling Peggy,'" and how Millais's "Bride of Lammermoor" belongs to an incident in Sir Walter Scott's novel, or how George Fuller's "Nydia" brings Bulwer's "Last Days of Pompeii" to mind. Then the Museum can help to show, too, how a single conception is treated by different media, as, for instance, peasant life as represented either by Wordsworth's poem "Michael" or by Millet's picture of "The Water-Carrier;" or the quality of light as shown either by the word pictures in Shelley's poem "Prometheus Unbound" or in Turner's canvas "The Fountain of Indolence." Teachers of art will learn from Mr. Cox not only that beauty is the thing but that beauty is at first sometimes best suggested by the minor forms of art. President Hall shows how art illumines history with a touch of that "light that never was on sea or land." As to the classics, we hardly needed to have the fact pointed out that "architecture, sculpture, pottery, gem-cutting, coins, metal-working, painting," make the past live again. But what we may not have realized is the fact that only by the study of the monuments of art does classical literature really live.

Alaska: An Empire in the Making. By John J. Underwood. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $2.

In 1867 the United States paid $7,200,000 to Russia for Alaska. Within very recent years, says Mr. Underwood, Alaska has added no less than $200,000,000 to the world's supply of gold alone, not to mention the millions of dollars' worth of fish products in our northern Territory. Nor is this all. In material return Alaska's future may be richer than Alaska's past; for instance, the coal and copper mines there, at present undeveloped, may far exceed the gold output in value. As a book of reference regarding these things and about others to surprise us equally—the climate and the flowers, for instance—Mr. Underwood's volume is to be recommended. But it is more than this. It is a book written by one who for years has lived in the country he describes. The sometimes jerky style noticeable in the statistical pages is generally absent from those recording more personal impressions.

Notable Women in History. By Willis J. Abbot. The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia. $2.40.

As the author puts it, these are short accounts of the lives of women in all lands and in all womanly occupations who have put their imprint on the world's history—"classic dames, queens, martyrs, women of wit and pleasure, priestesses of women's cause, women in arts and letters, and of the footlights," with a special division of women who stand alone, a rather odd trio—Martha Washington, Dolly Madison, and Joan of Arc. Of course there are many portraits. In all there are over fourscore women included.

Art of the Wallace Collection (The). By Henry C. Shelley. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. $2.

Mr. Shelley's account of the Wallace collection is of real value to students of art. It should prove especially valuable to the intending sojourner in London, who very likely may not realize the particular importance of this collection.

Parrot & Co. By Harold McGrath. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. $1.30.

The plot of Mr. McGrath's new romance centers about the close resemblance between two brothers, one of whom takes the blame for the other's crime and wanders over distant lands with only a parrot as companion. There is a love story, fighting, misunderstanding, and a final joyous clearance of troubles and crushing defeat of a pair of extremely low-down villains.

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THE READER'S VIEW

THE FIVE POINTS OF CALVINISM HISTORICALLY CONSIDERED

The meeting of the two Presbyterian General Assemblies in Atlanta, Georgia, last month, and the retiring from the presidency of Princeton Theological Seminary of Francis L. Patton, D.D., LL.D., who has for so many years occupied with most marked ability the highest and most honorable positions within the gift of the Presbyterian Church, render this a most appropriate time to take a brief historical glance at the so-called Five Points of Calvinism.

It may not be very generally known that these articles of belief had no existence in the time of Calvin, and therefore did not originate with him. John Calvin died in the year 1564, aged fifty-five years, while these five points, called by his name, were formulated in 1619 by the Synod of Dort to controvert the Five Points of Arminius, which formed the basis of the discussions through the six months of the sessions of that Synod. These Five Points, as formulated by the Synod of Dort, according to two authorities, are as follows:

1. Personal, Gratuitous Election to Everlasting Life.	1. Divine Predestination.
2. Particular Redemption.	2. The Redemption of Men through the Death of Christ.
3. Depravity, Native and Total.	3. Total Depravity.
4. Effectual Calling, or Regeneration, by the Holy Spirit.	4. Redemption through Grace.
5. Certain Perseverance of Saints unto Eternal Life.	5. Perseverance of Saints.

Some eight years ago I had the privilege of hearing a popular lecture, by Dr. McAfee, of Brooklyn, upon the Five Points of Calvinism, given before the Presbyterian Union of Newark, New Jersey, which was most interesting as well as instructive. To aid the mind in remembering the Five Points, Dr. McAfee made use of the word Tulip, which, possessing five letters, lends itself nicely to the subject in hand, especially as it ends with the letter P, as will be seen later.

Taking the five letters, Dr. McAfee used them as follows:

1st, T stands for Total Depravity.
2d, U " " Universal Sovereignty.
3d, L " " Limited Atonement.
4th, I " " Irresistible Grace.
5th, P " " Perseverance of the Saints.

Of course the adoption of this word restricts the order of the five points, and perhaps throws them out of their proper order and logical sequence. However this may be, I was led to consult several theological authorities to see how they agreed with Dr. McAfee, both as to the substance of doctrine as well as to the order of their relation to each other, and I give below some of the results of such consultations.

First, going to Abbott's "Dictionary of Religious Knowledge," I found the Five Points of Calvinism listed as in the list marked A below.

Jonathan Dickinson, first President of Princeton College, states these Five Points, with their proof texts, as:

1. Eternal Election. Ephesians i. 4, 5.
2. Original Sin. Romans v. 12.
3. Grace in Conversion. Ephesians ii. 4, 5.
4. Justification by Faith. Romans iii. 25.
5. Saints' Perseverance. Romans viii. 30.

And now, to come to the living authorities, I called upon Dr. Francis L. Patton, in Princeton, in the year 1905, and, requesting him to write the Five Points of Calvinism for me offhand, he sat down at his table and began. As he hesitated a little upon the second point, I said to him that if he desired a little time to think them over he might mail the list to me the next day, when he immediately replied: "Dr. Vail, if I cannot give you the Five Points of Calvinism offhand, without taking time to consider them, I had better get out of here" (meaning the presidency of Princeton Theological Seminary).

As he wrote the last point, "Perseverance of the Saints," I remarked, "That's right, Doctor, don't leave that point out." And he quickly replied, "No, Doctor, that would never do, for even the Cumberland Brethren believe in that."

Then I asked Dr. Patton if he had noticed that from the time of the disruption of the Presbyterian Church into the Old School and

A	B	C	D	E
1. Original Sin	Sovereign Election	Predestination	Universal Sovereignty and Partial Election	Absolute Sovereignty of God
2. Free Will	Total Depravity	Irresistible Grace	Total Depravity	Total Depravity of Man
3. Grace	Limited Atonement	Original Sin	Limited Atonement	Invincibility of Divine Grace
4. Predestination	Efficacious or Irresistible Grace	Particular Redemption	Efficacious Grace	Eternal Decrees of God
5. Perseverance	Perseverance of the Saints	Perseverance of the Saints	Perseverance of the Saints	Perseverance of the Saints

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New School branches, in the year 1837, until the date of the reunion of the two schools in the year 1870, was just thirty-three years, which we were accustomed to call one generation, and that between the dates of the reunion, in 1870, and the year of the revision of the Confession of Faith, in 1903, was again just thirty-three years, another generation. He replied that he had never noticed those facts, but, said he, "Dr. Vail, it will not be thirty-three years before the Cumberland Brethren are admitted into the great Presbyterian family." And it was not. It was only three years, as they were admitted in 1906, the very next year.

The Five Points of Calvinism, as given by Dr. Patton, are in list B.

Soon after obtaining Dr. Patton's list, having occasion to write Dr. Henry van Dyke upon another matter, I requested him to give me, offhand, the Five Points, stating that I had received them from Dr. Patton, but that I would like to have them in the order that he preferred.

He replied as follows: "The so-called Five Points of Calvinism are matters of historic theology, and you can rely upon Dr. Patton's statement of them as being correct. There is room for dispute as to what these points have been in the history of the Church, but I feel that there ought to be considerable room for difference of opinion as to whether they are true or not."

In reply to my request for a similar statement of the Five Points from Dr. Hugh Black, of Union Theological Seminary, he, after giving the list marked C, said: "I don't think Calvin himself would have summed up his system in these points. The system is one built up by rigorous logic from the one central idea of the sovereignty of God."

The Rev. George B. Stewart, D.D., President of Auburn Theological Seminary, gives the Five Points according to list D.

The Rev. Isaac N. Rendall, D.D., late President of Lincoln University, Pennsylvania, gives the Five Points as they are in list E.

It is interesting, in closing this short survey of these Five Points of Calvinism, to notice that the authorities consulted, however they may vary in the order of the points, all place "Perseverance of the Saints" as the fifth point, and while the order or wording of the other four points differs in almost every instance, no one omits this fifth point. This is significant, as it brings thus into prominence the fact that the main point of difference between the Calvinists and the Arminians at the Synod of Dort was just this fifth point, the Arminians believing that saints could fall from grace, and the Calvinists holding to the perseverance of the saints.

Whatever may be our individual position as to the merits of the Five Points of Calvinism, we must admit that they have stood the test of generations of controversy better than other statements of belief, and that Dr. Patton was about right when he said, in substance, not long since, that should Calvinism as a system of belief pass away, and man come to hold that he had found something better and more satisfactory, and in the coming ages should the antiquarian in his researches through the cemeteries dig up a skeleton of Calvinism, he would find it a vertebrate.

WILLIAM H. VAIL.

Newark, New Jersey.

THE VISITING TEACHER

[In a recent issue of The Outlook (the issue of May 31) we gave editorially some account of the work of the "Visiting Teachers Committee" in the New York public schools. It is hoped that the visiting teachers will before long become an official part of the public school system. At present their expenses are met by private subscription. A correspondent has sent us the following interesting record of specific cases which are typical of the results attained by the visiting teachers. They confirm our opinion, previously expressed, that the idea of the visiting teacher, who brings the home into closer touch with the school, may well be adopted by the public schools of cities and towns all over the country.—THE EDITORS.]

CASE NO. 1

The service which the visiting teacher renders in finding out the causes that make a child "difficult" is convincingly shown in the case of S——, thirteen years old. She had been sent to the principal's office nearly every day for two weeks because her behavior was "driving the teacher to distraction." Her stepmother had even taken her to the Children's Court because she could not manage the child, who screamed on the streets till the neighbors complained, stayed out till after ten o'clock playing with rough boys, and refused to do any work at home. The visitor in talking with her felt a certain helplessness in her manner, indications of nervousness but not of maliciousness. She took S—— to a nerve specialist, who said she was in the early stages of St. Vitus' dance. Long-continued medical treatment, under the supervision of a visiting nurse, was followed by a two months' outing in the country and then two months' vacation with a relative who lived near Bronx Park. In the fall the child returned to school in splendid mental and physical condition.

CASE NO. 2

R—— was coming to school irregularly; he was backward in his lessons and seemed to have lost interest in them. Sometimes he would fall asleep in the class-room. When the visiting teacher talked to him, he just said that he couldn't help it. The mother said, however, that the boy was being ill-treated by his stepfather, who made him go out at five o'clock every morning to sell newspapers and punished him severely if he did not bring in a certain amount

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of money. The man, who was a painter, was not working steadily, earning only $5 to $6 a week, which the mother supplemented by doing a little work for the neighbors. There were seven children younger than R——, who was thirteen, and the whole family was living in two rooms.

After several interviews the father began to realize that the school was going to look after the welfare of the boy, and he finally appealed to the teacher for help in getting more regular work himself. She secured money to pay his dues in the union, and he was placed in a shop where he earns from $10 to $15 a week. On the doctor's advice R—— was sent to the country for a month. When he returned he stopped selling papers, conditions in the home improved, and he did so well in school that he was promoted at the end of the term. Home conditions must be considered by the visiting teacher, as they play so large a part in the success of the child in school.

CASE NO. 3

To the teacher J—— seemed restless and nervous, and she wondered whether he might not be tubercular, since at times his cheeks were flushed.

When the visiting teacher called at the home, the mother strengthened somewhat the teacher's general impression by stating that her husband was not strong, that his father was a victim of chronic bronchitis and catarrh, and that she herself could never get rid of her cough. She assented at once to having the boy examined for tuberculosis, and through the co-operation of the Charity Organization Society this was done, with a view to sending him to the country if his condition warranted it. Fortunately, it did not.

He was then taken for a further examination to a physician associated with one of the hospitals. For a month and more he was treated by him, and, as a result, has lost all traces of his restlessness and is no longer the sluggish boy he was. His mother's comment is significant. He is "more active, more playful; he wants to do things and to go to places; before he used to just sit." The principal, when the visiting teacher explained that the child was receiving medical treatment and that the doctor wished to know its effect on his mental reactions, allowed him to remain with his former teacher instead of transferring him as she had planned.

Frequent inquiries in the class-room brought invariably the response, "He is less restless; he is capable of greater application." Just three months after the time he was taken charge of by the doctor who understood him he won his reward when his teacher pointed to him with pride as an "A" boy.

CASE NO. 4

The continued effort that is sometimes necessary was shown in the case of F——, who was reported to the visiting teacher because of his bad influence on the school. He belonged to a gang which met in a den on —— Street. The visiting teacher persuaded one of the boys to take her to the den, which was dark and covered with rubbish and lighted with pieces of candles. The boys had some guns and a sword. The visiting teacher induced the mother of one of the boys to open up her home, and they met there once a week with the visiting teacher to play games. Soon after, however, F—— robbed the mails, taking checks amounting to $25, which he was clever enough to get cashed. With this money the gang went to Providence, first purchasing some guns. The district superintendent then broke up the gang by sending them to different schools. The visiting teacher and F——'s own teacher spent much thought on influencing the boy, and for a time he did very well, even attending a special summer session. He was an intelligent boy and had pleasing manners. That fall, however, he again came under the influence of bad companions, and after being away from home several days looked as though he had been on a debauch. The visiting teacher for a time went to his home every morning and brought him to school. He was sixteen and wanted to go to work, but his mother was anxious he should go to high school. She was finally persuaded to let him go to work, and the visiting teacher found a place for him with an exceptionally fine man. He made F—— realize his need of education, and in two weeks the boy went back to school to prepare for high school. He is doing so well that he will probably be promoted to the high school in June.

TAXING LAND VALUES

I have read with interest your articles on the question of land taxation in the issues of April 5 and May 10. Can you admit me to a brief participation in this discussion on your "Reader's View" page? One objection urged by real estate interests against the proposed differential tax upon land values seems to me altogether specious and unsound. It is said that property in real estate has been acquired, and is being acquired, under sanction of the law; that city, State, and Nation are committed to a recognition of private ownership of land; ergo, a special tax upon land values is a breach of public faith.

The counter-argument is, of course, a truism, but one which needs, apparently, perennial repetition. Law does not offer, it does not even pretend to offer, a final solution of economic problems. The last appeal must always be to the will of the people. Not to the caprice of momentary whim, but to the mature, deliberate will of the people. Suppose, then, the people of this Nation, or of any part of it, decide that private ownership in land is a monopoly and more or less injurious to their welfare, what then? We may hope that they will act slowly,

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but act they must, or else play the coward and renounce their birthright as citizens of a democracy.

More than once in our history has the mercantile conception of justice been discarded in a time of political and social crisis. Take slavery. Slavery was legalized, if any institution ever could be legalized. Protected by Constitutional clauses and by judicial decisions galore, it nevertheless fell. And the historians brusquely remark that the men of the twenties and forties simply had no power to bind their children of a later decade.

Take another instance. A brewery is in many States a lawful business; so is a saloon. They pay money into the public treasury and enjoy police protection. All at once a wave of prohibition sentiment sweeps over the State. It goes "dry," perhaps by a narrow majority, and a valuable industry is ruined. Such disasters should be lightened as far as may be, and avoided where possible; but they must never be erected into a reason for abandoning a real reform.

Breach of faith? On the contrary, it looks to me as if landowners were being placed on notice right here and now. They know that the question of discriminatory tax has been agitated in Germany, in England, in New Zealand, in western Canada, in the city of Houston, Texas, and now finally in New York. It is for them to scan closely the signs of the times, and to read the future aright. M. C. BURKE.

Tuscaloosa, Alabama.

WHAT FARMERS NEED AND WANT

The editorial "A Book for Those Who Farm and Those Who Eat," in The Outlook for May 17, is the most sensible and accurate statement of the great problem of farm life that I have ever seen in any magazine. Your summary of the situation in the three sections mentioned is entirely correct. This editorial is especially helpful and gratifying because most of the people who influence and stimulate thought seem to have a very crude conception of what our farmers need and desire. It would be amusing, if it were not discouraging, to note how our teachers and wise men are off the track through their inability to grasp the foundation fact of this farm question. When I was a boy in a little fishing town on the coast, one of our Cape Cod sloops was wrecked on the coast of Nova Scotia. The survivors found a group of French Canadian farmers—little men, who talked a strange nervous language with tongue and shoulder and hand combined. Our Cape Cod sailors tried to make these men understand in two ways. They first assumed that these were children, and they tried baby talk—short and foolish words. Then they approached them as deaf men, and shouted and screamed, without effect. In a way it seems to me that most of our wise men approach our farmers about as sensibly as this. They do not do it intentionally, but because they have not thought it necessary to understand the real, homely language and thought of the farmer.

The true farm problem is industrial. Men in the country are trying to pay their debts, educate and train their children and maintain their home with a 35-cent dollar. Let us say that the city woman spends $1 for food in the city market; we call that the consumer's dollar. That dollar is finally divided into two parts. The farmer who originally produced that food finally received 35 cents. The remaining 65 cents goes to the various middlemen and handlers who stand between the farmer and the city dinner table. The trouble with the American farmer is that he is trying to do an honest man's share of the duties of citizenship with a 35-cent dollar. Not only does he receive this inadequate share, but most of that and the other 65 cents passes away from him into the towns, so that he is at a disadvantage in obtaining fair credit. We all remember Presidential campaigns wherein the menace of a 50-cent silver dollar was used to frighten our workmen and small home owners. The 35-cent dollar, with all the social dangers it stands for, is not only a menace, but a hard fact. Somehow our wise men will not understand that we need something more than scientific education and the ability to produce more 35-cent dollars. True, we need men to give us bulletins, but we need far more men who will give battle for our interests.

The Outlook's clear and accurate summary of the situation will do great good in directing thought to this question. We particularly need the help of those who influence the thought of the strong men in town and city, for the farmers alone cannot solve this hard problem. This question of the 35-cent dollar must be made a part of popular thought. It has a dozen roots reaching out to the very foundation of society, and we rejoice to see that The Outlook understands the situation.

HERBERT W. COLLINGWOOD,
Editor "The Rural New Yorker."

THE FOUNDER OF BEDFORD REFORMATORY

Mr. James Wood, of Mount Kisco, New York, has called our attention to the fact that the movement for establishing the Reformatory for Women at Bedford, New York, referred to in Dr. Abbott's "Letters to Unknown Friends" in the May 24 issue of The Outlook, originated with Abby Hopper Gibbons, daughter of Isaac Hopper, who founded the Isaac Hopper Home in New York City many years ago. Mr. Wood says that Mrs. Gibbons was ninety years old when, after repeated failures by others in previous years, she secured the passage through the Legislature of the bill providing for the establishment of the Reformatory.—THE EDITORS.

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MANY INVENTIONS

SANITATION IN THE ARMY

WE have received from Major-General Leonard Wood, Chief of Staff of the United States Army, some extremely interesting statements regarding the application in the army's medical work of recent scientific and medical knowledge, and this information is accompanied by charts which present in a graphic way the result of preventive medicinal methods in the army. Thus, in one chart is shown the progress of anti-typhoid vaccination. This was begun voluntarily in 1909, and two years later was made compulsory. The charts show that the number of cases of typhoid among enlisted men has fallen from 5.82 per thousand in 1903 to .26 per thousand in 1912, while the death rate per thousand has fallen in the same period from .28 to .03. The value of the treatment is shown even more strongly by comparing the figures of 1909 with those of 1912. In the former year the rate of admission to the hospital per thousand was 3.03, while in 1912, as stated above, it was .26, and the death rate per thousand, which was .28 in 1909 (precisely the same as in 1903) fell in the three following years to .03—that is to say, vastly the largest amount of this extraordinary gain took place after 1909, when the anti-typhoid vaccination took place. As a mathematical demonstration of the value of the treatment nothing could be clearer. The charts relating to malarial fevers give very similar results. It may truly be said that typhoid, which caused havoc among American soldiers in the Spanish War, has now practically been banished from the army; and that this statement is literal and not figurative is shown by the fact that not a case has occurred among the fifty-eight thousand enlisted men in the United States since December, 1912. The decrease of the rate in malaria is of course due to the discovery of the method of transmission of the disease by mosquitoes and the protective measures taken.

The history of advance in this direction is worth stating, although some part of it may be familiar to some readers.

The brilliant work of Major Walter Reed, United States Army, in Cuba, demonstrated that yellow fever is carried by a special variety of mosquito, the application of which discovery by Gorgas and others resulted in the banishment of that pestilence from the Pearl of the Antilles, and later from the Canal Zone and many other of its strongholds. Except, however, among health officers and others engaged in the study of preventive medicine, little is known of the success with which it has been applied in the army for the control of the more common diseases such as malaria, typhoid fever, and dysentery.

About the time that Reed was studying the rôle of the Stegomyia mosquito in transmitting yellow fever, another military surgeon, Ronald Ross, was studying on the other side of the world in British India the connection between malaria and another variety of mosquito known among scientists as Anopheles. Accordingly army medical officers have assisted in breaking up the breeding-places of mosquitoes, by draining marshes, applying oil to pools and watercourses, screening barracks, and in other ways protecting the soldiers from the bites of the malaria-bearing mosquito. This work has reached its highest degree of thoroughness and intensity in the Canal Zone, which would be uninhabitable without it.

The work of English medical officers in making soldiers immune against typhoid fever by the injection of the germs of typhoid fever which had been killed with heat has been studied, improved, and applied with remarkable success in the American army, which is to-day the only army in the world which has been rendered entirely immune against this formidable disease. Very good results have followed the adoption of this procedure in the United States navy, in which typhoid fever has been practically wiped off the sick list. The anti-typhoid serum which has produced these remarkable results in both services has been all prepared at the laboratory of the Army Medical School in Washington.

Amebic dysentery was in the first years of our occupation of the Philippines the scourge of our troops, while cholera and smallpox lurked in the background. By the application of the rules of preventive medicine these and other serious tropical diseases have become rare and unusual, while beri-beri, which until recently was the chief cause of disability and death among our native troops, the Philippine Scouts, has been entirely controlled, there having been 2 cases in 1912 as compared with 598 in 1903.

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In an address made in Philadelphia two years ago by President Taft he said: "When we consider how in times past the efficiency of an army has been reduced by large percentages through disease, we can realize what an important part of the army the Medical Corps has become. But, without reference to war, when we consider the enormous advances made in the discovery of methods of preventing disease in the tropics by members of the Medical Corps and under Government auspices, and all within the last thirteen years, I think we may take pardonable pride in the record."

THE SUBMARINE VIOLIN

The Navy Department, says the "Scientific American," has adopted a "submarine violin" for the transmission of messages between submarine torpedo-boats and shore stations or other vessels. Exhaustive tests of the apparatus have been made on a submarine at Hampton Roads, Virginia, and three sets of the signal device have been ordered to be placed on as many vessels.

The mechanism is explained to be an adaptation of the violin. "From one side of the submarine project two steel stays. From the ends of these is stretched taut a piano wire. Touching the wire is the roughened rim of a wheel which, when it revolves, sets up vibrations in the wire. The wheel is controlled by a motor inside the hull of the submarine, and the motor, in turn, is controlled by a Morse key. When the key is pressed the motor begins to revolve, the exterior wheel scraping the wire precisely as a bow agitates a violin string. The hull of the submarine acts as a sounding-board. The key is used precisely as an ordinary Morse key, and dots and dashes are hummed on the wire as the key is depressed and released. About eight words per minute is the best speed so far attained. The receiving apparatus is the ordinary telephone receiver. The end under water may be connected by insulated wires to a fort, shore station, or another vessel. The experiments at Hampton Roads showed that the vibrations may be heard clearly at a distance of five miles. Naval officers believe that the device can be perfected so that the range of the mechanism may be greatly extended. Christian Berger, an Austrian, is the inventor of the submarine violin. He attempted to get the Austrian Government to make tests of it, but failed. Coming to the United States, he succeeded in convincing Navy Department officials of the practicability of the scheme."

MACHINERY AT THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION

Rapid progress is being made in the construction of the main exhibit buildings at the Panama-Pacific International Exposition at San Francisco. There will be fourteen main exhibit buildings. Work upon the Machinery Building, the largest of the exhibit group, was begun early in the year, and it will be ready for the complete installation of exhibits by the opening date, February 20, 1915. The Machinery Building will have nearly eight acres of floor space. There will also be an auxiliary structure to be known as the Gas and Fuels Building. Electrical machinery, instead of being placed in a separate building, will be located in the Machinery Building and classed under the general heading of machinery. All parts of the building will be served by adequate crane facilities. Electric current, alternating and direct, gas and water, will be available in any portion of the building; compressed air and steam will be provided in a section adjacent to the Gas and Fuels Building. General illumination is to be provided by the exposition company, but a nominal charge will be made to exhibitors for other utilities service they desire. Special rates for power will be made to exhibitors who use it to show machinery in motion. The floor of the Machinery Building is designed for a load of two hundred pounds per square foot. No charge will be made for exhibit space.—*Scientific American.*

TRAPS FOR MOSQUITOES

An ingenious night-trap for mosquitoes is described in "Chambers's Journal," which asserts that it has proved highly successful under exacting tests:

Recourse has been made to the luminous paint which was invented some years ago by Dr. W. H. Balmain, and improved very considerably by Mr. W. C. Horne, who has been engaged in its manufacture for thirty years. The salient feature of this luminous paint is that no phosphorus is used. The mosquito-trap is a short glass cylinder about six inches in length and one inch in diameter, the interior surface of which is coated with the Balmain compound, and the ends sealed. The outer surface of the glass is then coated with an adhesive substance similar to that spread on fly-papers, and the tube is suspended by means of a string to some convenient place. Exposure to daylight causes the Balmain paint to collect and store natural light, which is thrown off in the dark. The faint, steady glow attracts the insects very effectively, and as no heat is emitted the mosquitoes settle upon the glass and are trapped by the adhesive. The trap may be left in position for days, or it may be removed every morning for cleaning, when it is only necessary to take a small piece of wood—a thick match will do—and scrape off the insects, applying a fresh dressing of the adhesive from the tube in which it is carried.

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BY THE WAY

In connection with the comment on the "grape juice" state dinners at Washington, which have been criticised as hopelessly provincial, it ought to be said that abstemiousness in the use of alcoholic drink is not provincial in any sense. It is stated that a number of the crowned heads of Europe are teetotalers. Among those who drink no wines or liquors are mentioned the King of Spain, King Ferdinand of Bulgaria, Queen Emma of Holland, and the King and Queen of Sweden.

The vocation of magician would seem to be an individualistic one if anything is, for each prestidigitator is the "greatest" and "only." Yet the desire for fellowship exists even among the wizards, for the Society of American Magicians has just held its Convention in New York City, with an attendance of 127 members. One of the objects of the Society is said to be to "keep the secrets of the art from the public."

Benjamin Franklin was a lover of fine books, but it is much to be doubted if he ever paid for any book in his library a tenth of the price that one of his own books lately brought in England—"A Dissertation on Liberty and Necessity." This small volume sold for $5,025.

Many beekeepers beat tin pans at swarming-time because they think it makes the bees settle down; but a contributor to "Bee Culture" says that this practice is merely a relic of a forgotten English law which required the beekeeper to give notice in this way that his bees were swarming and that he was entitled to follow them. If he lost sight of them after giving this warning, the bees became the property of the person on whose land they alighted.

Henry W. Savage, producer of plays—"good plays," it is to be presumed—says, after a four months' trip abroad, that he "found no plays abroad worth importing. I never remember such a dearth of good plays on the other side." Here is the opportunity for the American playwright who has heretofore had no chance to show his genius because of the competition of "cheap translations."

In 1888 the steamer Tioga sank in the Chicago River and twenty-seven sailors were drowned. The 200 heirs of the sailors have now, after twenty-five years, finally won their damage suit against the owners of the vessel, and $110,000 will be distributed among them, after deducting court costs. The original counsel for both the heirs and the company are dead, and so are several of the original plaintiffs. The "law's delays" have rarely had a more striking illustration.

The new office building of the Canadian Pacific Railway in Toronto, sixteen stories high, is spoken of as the highest office building in the British Empire. A good many American cities could boast of bigger things in this line, if it were not out of fashion now for American cities to boast.

September of next year will see another yacht race for the America's Cup, the challenge of Sir Thomas Lipton having been accepted by the New York Yacht Club.

To the Gilbertian list of things that are not what they seem, with the "skimmed milk that often masquerades as cream," must now be added the froth on the cheaper grades of soda-water. That rich creamy foam, according to the New York City Health Department, is often produced by soapbark, a deleterious substance. Its use has been prohibited by the Department.

In the Bodleian Library at Oxford, says Professor Thayer, an old manuscript contains this warning: "This book belongs to St. Mary of Roberts Bridge; whosoever shall steal it, or sell it, or in any way alienate it from this house, let him be anathema-maranatha. Amen." Underneath this a later owner has written: "I, John, Bishop of Exeter, know not where the aforesaid house is, nor did I steal this book, but acquired it in a lawful way." This explanation makes one wish that the Bishop could have given the pedigree of his acquisition.

Craganour, the horse that came in first at the Derby but was disqualified, has been sold to the Argentine Government for $150,000. Only one other horse, it is believed—the famous Ormonde—ever brought so high a price.

Timothy Cole, master of wood-engraving, has been made a member of the American Academy of Arts and Letters. Mr. Cole, while an interpretative rather than a creative artist, has maintained his place in the first rank of wood engravers while almost all his colleagues of the old days have been swept away by the deluge of "process work."

Americans are said to drink as much coffee as all the rest of the world, and have formed the habit of drinking the strong Brazilian coffees. We import five times as much coffee from Brazil as we do from all other countries. Within seven years the price of this coffee has advanced from about seven cents per pound to 13½ cents. "Everybody's Magazine" thinks the rise is due in part to manipulation, and wants the Government to see about it.

A characteristic sentence from Carlyle is this from Charles Eliot Norton's journals now being published in "Scribner's Magazine:" "No man can hope to do anythin' worth doin' and that has the temper of eternity in it without strenuous effort."

Country pleasures, to a boy, often consist in a general let-down of the rigors of civilized existence. This frame of mind is amusingly hit off in the following from the Chicago "News:" "Fond Mother—'Don't forget to put your tooth-brush in your suit-case, Bobby.' Bobby (going to the country for a week)—'Oh, shucks! I thought this was going to be a pleasure trip!'"

With a view of inspiring a patriotic feeling in the Indians by the appeal of the National emblem, 169 separate Indian tribes are each to be presented with a fine American flag. The Rodman Wanamaker Expedition of Citizenship to the North American Indian recently left Washington on this errand, and will visit each Indian Reservation to present a flag.

Madame Judith, the noted French actress of a past generation, in her recently published autobiography gives an unflattering picture of the famous novelist George Sand. "She had fine black eyes," says Madame Judith, "but their beauty did not make up for her common appearance as a whole. Whatever her mental qualities, she certainly had no feminine graces in her external appearance. A masculine voice, a martial gait, and bold, blunt manners—nature certainly made a mistake in her case, for she ought to have been a man." The actress also makes the assertion that the novelist smoked—not dainty cigarettes, but a clay pipe!

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